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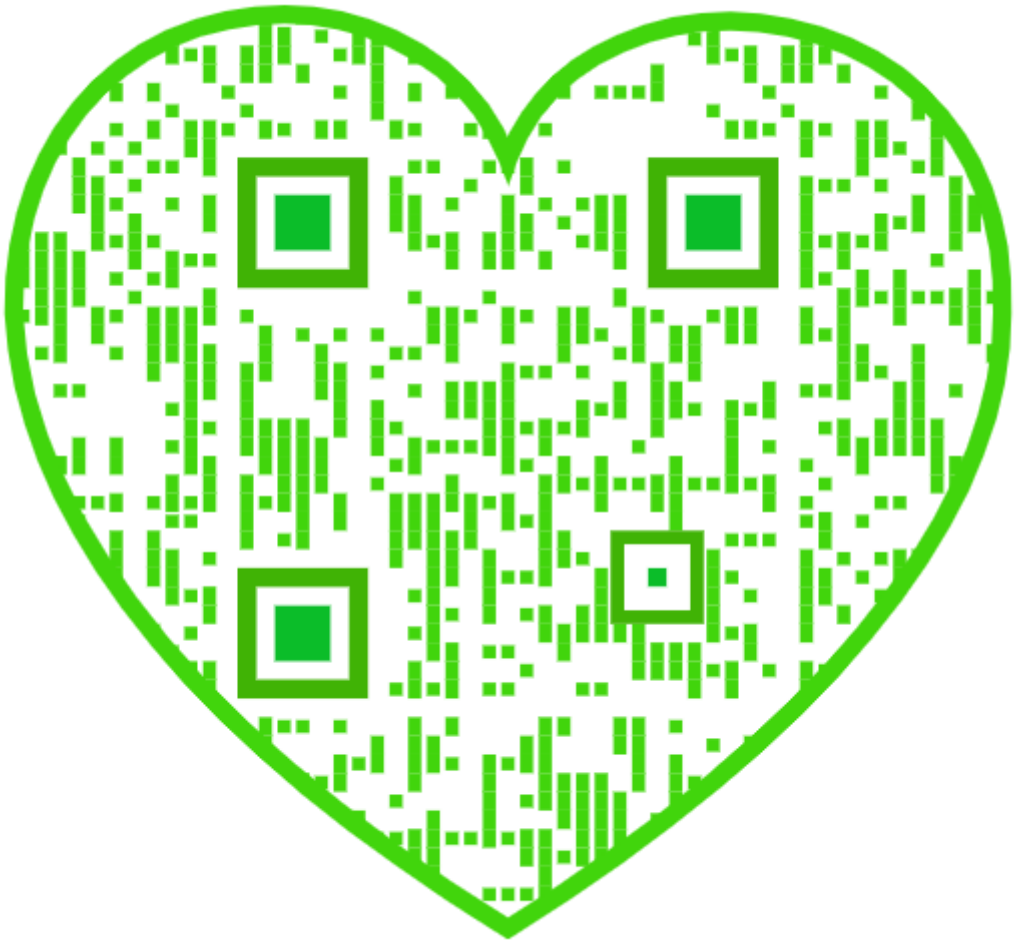

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American History

Outlines and Notes

A Reference Manual
for
Teachers and Pupils

B. E. HUFFMAN

AMERICAN HISTORY

OUTLINES AND NOTES

A REFERENCE MANUAL

for

Teachers and Pupils

By B. E. HUFFMAN

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Introduction

"Of the making of books there is no end." What is needed is not more books, but better books. This statement is as true with regard to text-books as along other lines of literary effort.

Before a new vessel is launched even though it be but a steam-tug, a demand for its existence should be felt. Before launching this little bark upon the untried sea of popular favor, we inquire, Is it needed? Will it supply a long-felt demand? Is this demand sufficiently pressing to warrant the time and expense required to launch this little bark?

From the standpoint of a field educational worker, I do not hesitate to say, after years of observation, that a complete series of outlines to guide in the study of United States History, pointing out the hand of Providence in the discovery, exploration, and colonization of America at just the time and in just the manner prescribed by the Ruler of nations, is greatly needed by our teachers everywhere as an aid in their earnest endeavor to impress upon the mind of the student the eternal principle, "The most High ruleth in the kingdom of men and giveth it to whomsoever He will."

We firmly believe that these outlines, prepared by Prof. B. E. Huffman of Emmanuel Missionary College, representing as they do years of research in both Bible and history, and combining the two in the most natural and harmonious way, will be received by both teachers and students in American History with glad approval.

Especially helpful will be found the unique way in which the author has brought before the mind of the student the hand of God in the development in this country of republican and protestant principles.

We bespeak for this little work a hearty reception, believing that its daily use in the classroom can but inspire in the heart of both teacher and student a spirit of true patriotism, as well as a deep reverence for the One who has overruled in the growth, progress, and development of this "Marvel of Nations."

South Bend, Indiana. CLIFFORD A. RUSSELL.
July 1, 1913.

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SECTION I.

The Foundation Principles of Our History

1. Definition of History and object of its study.
2. Scope of the subject and principles to be recognized.
3. The Great Controversy.
   - 1^1 Its origin and leaders.
   - 2^1 How the controversy is carried on.
     - 1^2 Through individuals.
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         - 2^4 Joseph versus his brethren and Potiphar's household.
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         - 1^4 Egypt.
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5[4] Rome.
4[3] What did the Greeks, the Jews, and the Romans accomplish for the world which prepared, or greatly aided in the preparation of, the way for the first advent of Christ and the work of His church?
5[3] Show from the Bible that a representative form of government is God's ideal for nations whenever conditions will permit.
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Statement of the Foundation Principles of Our History

Careless seems the great Avenger; history's pages but record
One death grapple in the darkness, 'twixt old systems and the Word;
Truth forever on the scaffold, Wrong forever on the throne,—
Yet that scaffold sways the future, and behind the dim unknown,
Standeth God within the shadow, keeping watch above His own. —*Lowell.*

"In the annals of human history the growth of nations, the rise and fall of empires, appear as dependent on the will and prowess of man. The shaping of events seems, to a great degree, to be determined by his power, ambition, or caprice. But in the Word

of God the curtain is drawn aside, and we behold, behind, above, and through all the play and counterplay of human interests and power and passions, the agency of the all-merciful One, silently, patiently working out the counsels of His own will."—*Education, page 173.*

History. History is a record of events which have taken place in the great controversy between right and wrong. It embraces not only the origin, growth, career, and final overthrow of nations, but the political, religious, social, and economic influences and combinations among men in their relation to this great conflict between truth and error.

Principles. Every one who studies history should recognize that a controversy is on between Christ and Satan over the character of God and of His government, and that the events recorded in all ages past have had their influence upon this controversy. Both Christ and Satan are exemplifying their true character: the one as a compassionate, sin-pardoning Saviour; the other as a jealous, cruel oppressor.

This outline traces briefly the controversy from its origin in heaven to our own time. We have endeavored to show the relation of one event to another so the student may discern God's over-ruling providence among the nations for the protection of His people and the completion of His work in the earth. The history of the United States of America forms only a small portion of the history of the world, and can be rightly understood only in its relation to the history of the world.

How to Study History. If we would know the whole history of the world we should study the history of redemption. One writer has said, "To the casual observer of Providence, to the ordinary reader of this world's history, the whole appears like a chaos

of incidents; no thread, no system, no line of connection running through it. One course of events is seen here, and another there. Kingdoms rise on the stage one after another, and become great and powerful, and then pass away and are forgotten. And the history of the church seems scarcely less a chaos than that of the world. Changes are continually going on within it and around it, and these apparently without much order. Yet, all is not a chaos. The Christian student, with his eye devoutly fixed on the hand of God, looks out upon the world, and back on the wide field of its history, and takes altogether a different view. What before seemed so chaotic and disorderly, now puts on the appearance of system and form."

"It is only when we see God—Christ—redemption—in history, that we read it in the light of truth. This is the golden thread that passes through its entire web, and gives it its strength, its lustre, and consistency,"—*The Hand of God in History, pp. 3, 4, 14.*

As we continue this study let us open our hearts to the influence of the Holy Spirit that we may be led to recognize the hand of God over-ruling the events of history for the sake of His people and the good of His work in the earth.

The Beginning of the Controversy. Satan "was once an honored angel in heaven, next to Christ. His countenance, like those of the other angels, was mild and expressive of happiness. His forehead was high and broad, showing great intelligence. His form was perfect; his bearing noble and majestic." He looked upon the beauty of his appearance, and his wisdom; and, instead of giving God glory for these blessings, he regarded them as of himself; and furthermore, because of these attainments, reasoned that he should be given a part in all the secret coun-

sels of God. But Lucifer (as he was then called) is a created being. Jesus is "the only begotten Son of God," and as such is the only one who could enter into all the plans, purposes, and counsels of His Father. He was associated with His Father in creating the heaven and earth, and all things found in them. (Col. 1:14, 16; Heb. 1:2, 3.) "When God said to His Son, 'Let us make man in our image', Satan was jealous of Jesus. He wished to be consulted concerning the formation of man, and because he was not, he was filled with envy, jealousy, and hatred. He desired to receive the highest honors in heaven next to God."—*Spiritual Gifts, page 17.*

Little by little Lucifer indulged the desire for exaltation and power, and as he associated with the other angels he endeavored to secure their services and loyalty to himself. Some of the angels did sympathize with Lucifer in his rebellion, and they too rebelled against the authority of Jesus.

The king of the universe called all the hosts of heaven before him that in their presence He might make known the true position of His Son, and the relation He sustained to all created beings. It was there decided that Lucifer, with all the angels who had joined him in the rebellion, should be expelled from heaven; but they would not go willingly, and a war followed. Angels were engaged in the battle, but the good and true angels prevailed, and Satan with his forces was driven from heaven.

The Controversy Transferred to Earth. Satan did not give up his purpose to be like the Most High, and to have a kingdom in which he would be supreme. He determined to secure the services and loyalty of Adam and Eve to himself. This he succeeded in doing by deceiving them, causing them to doubt God's love for them, and getting them to eat of the forbid-

den tree in the midst of the garden of Eden. Sorrow filled all heaven when Adam and Eve sinned, and the angels stopped their music for they did not know how God would ever redeem this world from sin. But God had a plan by which sinful man might be forgiven, and the lost world restored to its place in His original purpose. His plan was this: Jesus should come to this world as a little babe; and for us would grow to manhood, live a holy life, suffer all that wicked men and demons could inflict upon Him, and die a cruel death upon a cross; and, by forgiving the sins of all who would believe upon Him and obey Him, prove that Satan is a liar and a murderer. Thus He would have the right to destroy Satan and save the world.

This plan was made known to Adam and Eve, who accepted it and learned to offer their sacrifices, which represented the death of Christ and which were intended to keep the plan of salvation fresh in the minds of the people until Christ should come and die for them. Since this plan was made known to Adam, the controversy has been going on in this world between Chist and the holy angels on one side, and Satan and the evil angels on the other side. They are contending over every person living on the earth. The description of their battle is found in "Testimonies for the Church", Vol. 1., pp. 345, 346.

Just as soon as Eve sinned, she placed herself on Satan's side of the controversy, and was used by him to tempt Adam to sin. So it always is. Every sinner is a worker for Satan. Every Christian is a worker for God. Jesus said, "He that is not with me is against me, and he that gathereth not with me scattereth abroad."—*Matt. 12:30.* But there has never been a time, since the days of Adam, that God has not had representatives working for Him among their fellow-men.

Individual Representatives. The Bible contains a brief history of a number of men and women who championed the cause of God, against the efforts of men and women who were fighting against Him. The following are some of those whose life's record well illustrate how, during the early part of the controversy on earth, the leaders worked through individuals as their representatives:—

Abel against Cain.
Noah against all the ungodly of his day.
Joseph against his brethren, and the wicked people of Egypt.
Moses against Pharaoh and his magicians.
Esther and Mordecai against Haman.
Daniel and his companions against wicked men in Babylon.

Since this portion of Bible History is familiar to all our young people, we shall not take the time to repeat it here; but if any are not familiar with Bible History, they should read the lives of these heroes.

The Controversy Through Nations; The Beginning of Nations—Satan's Representatives. When Cain killed his brother, God placed a mark upon him to show that he had joined Satan in the controversy. Cain said, "My punishment is greater than I can bear. . . . It shall come to pass that every one that findeth me shall slay me."—*Gen. 4:13-15.* Although Cain had God's promise of protection, he felt safer to have a strong body-guard about him. For this reason he went into the land of Nod and built a city which he called Enoch. This was the first city ever built in this world. It was a little kingdom and Cain was the ruler.

After the flood, Nimrod, another wicked man, established a great kingdom by building cities and ruling over them. His kingdom was afterward called Babylon. Thus, you see, the first cities and the first

kingdom were founded by wicked people. Many things were done in these cities which made the people love them very much. Every year, many days were spent in feasting and worshiping idols. The people tried to forget the true God and took pleasure in exalting the glory of their nation.

Principles of Government. Among God's people no other organization existed but the family. God intended that every intelligent being should become self-governing, but when man sinned he allowed Satan to have control of his mind, and instead of having the mind of God he received a carnal mind which is enmity against God. The carnal mind always wants to rule over others, but the one who has it cannot control himself. No one can exercise true self-government only as he submits to the influence of the Holy Spirit. In the great controversy these two principles of government are developed. The one is in harmony with the government of heaven; the other, with that of Satan.

God's Representatives; Their Experience in Egypt. In the course of time, men became so attached to their nation that they would not accept the gospel because it was not represented by a great nation. In order to reach the world with the gospel, God makes a nation to represent His work in the earth. He does so by calling Abram out from among his relatives, who worship idols, and making him the father of His nation. God led Abram through such experiences as would cause him to command his household after him. But the work of nation-making was delayed until the third generation because of the slowness with which lessons of confidence and faith in God were learned. It was with Jacob, whose name was changed to Israel, that the real work of making a nation for God commenced.

At this time Egypt was the principal heathen nation in the world. God sent Joseph to Egypt as his missionary to teach the rulers of Egypt about the true God. Afterward all the children of Israel—about seventy—were sent to Egypt as God's representatives. They were allowed to dwell in the land of Goshen—a fertile country on the river Nile. We can see why God directed the king of Egypt to give them this part of the country. It was because all commerce and travel between Egypt and the other nations had to pass through Goshen, and God wanted His people where they could easily come in touch with all nations as teachers of truth.

The Conflict between Israel and the Egyptians. When the new king, who had not known Joseph and what he had done for Egypt, came to the throne, the children of Israel were treated very cruelly, but God prospered them, and made them stronger than their enemies. But as God's people should never use force, nor kill their fellow-men, in order to escape persecution, the children of Israel suffered much and waited for God to deliver them.

God wanted the Egyptians to learn of the true God before He took his people from among them. He sent Moses and Aaron to teach both the Israelites and the Egyptians that the Egyptians were not worshiping the true God. After performing many miracles to teach this lesson, He led His people—a large multitude—out of Egypt to give them a land of their own, and make of them a kingdom of priests and teachers who could command the respect of all nations. (Ex. 19:5, 6; Deut. 28:1-14; 4:5-10; Isa. 43:1, 7, 21.)

National Probation. We read in Acts 17:26, 27, that God fixes the boundaries of nations, and promises to enlarge their territory only when by so doing His work can be advanced. God gives every nation a

chance to help forward His work by giving perfect religious liberty to all the people, and he helps those nations that will do this. But when a nation enforces unjust laws which cause cruel persecution of His people, God will permit a revolution in that nation, or will allow another nation to make war upon them to punish them for their cruelties, and as a result the government may be overthrown or lose a part of its territory.

"To every nation and to every individual of today God has assigned a place in His great plan. Today men and nations are being measured by the plummet in the hand of Him who makes no mistake. All are by their own choice deciding their destiny, and God is overruling all for the accomplishment of His purposes."—*Education, page 178.* (Read Dan. 4:32; Jer. 18:7–10; Eze. 21:25–27; Ps. 106:34–46; 105:13–15.

Other Nations Which Performed a Leading Part in the Controversy. When God led Israel out of Egypt, He gave them the land of Canaan at the east end of the Mediterranean Sea, because at that time Egypt, having refused to learn of the true God, was declining in power and the attention of the world was turning from her. Nimrod's kingdom, Babylon, in the land of Shinar, was becoming an important and leading nation, and must be given a chance to know of the true God and of His people. Israel might have been the leading nation on earth had the people always been true (Deut. 28:1–14); but they failed to be a missionary people as God intended, and the Babylonians were allowed to come against them with an army and carry them away captives. (Ps. 105:34–46). While in Babylon, Daniel and his companions had a chance to teach the king and his princes of the true God.

You have already learned from your study of the

Bible, something of the history of the nations of Asia and Europe; viz., Babylon, Medo-Persia, Greece, and Rome, represented by the symbols used in the second and seventh of Daniel. Each of these nations held universal power for a time, and was given opportunity to know the true God, and to help forward His work. Babylon ruled the world from about 606 to 538 B. C.; Medo-Persia, from 538 to 321 B. C.; Greece, from 321 to 161 B. C.; Rome, from 161 B. C. until overthrown by the barbarian tribes by which it was divided into ten parts, between the years 351 and 483 A. D. But each of these nations in turn failed to live up to its privilege in helping forward the work of God, the Romans and the Jews going so far as to unite in crucifying Jesus.

The Way Prepared for Christ's First Advent. The Greeks aided in preparing the way for Christ's life and work on earth by giving the world a written language which was read and understood everywhere; the Jews aided by preserving the Scriptures and translating them into the Greek language; the Romans, by building good roads for military purposes throughout the empire, made it easier for missionaries to carry the gospel to all the then known world. Christ and His disciples traveled many of them.

A Representative Government God's Plan: Why Israel's Government was Changed. The government of the universe is representative. We read in Job, chapters 1 and 2, that on certain occasions when the sons of God came together Satan came also. These sons of God are representatives of different worlds, and Satan, the usurper of this world, went also to these councils. But since Jesus conquered Satan, Jesus represents this world, and Satan is not admitted to the councils any more. The government given to

Israel at Sinai was representative. There was the council of the seventy elders, and there were captains over thousands and captains over hundreds, and captains over fifties, and captains over tens. (Num. 11:10–17; Deut. 1:9–18.) A representative government is ideal when intellectual and moral conditions are such as to make it safe. But God rules "in the kingdom of men and giveth it to whomsoever H will", *Dan. 4:25*, today just as he did anciently. The best form of government for some of the nations and tribes on earth today is monarchial: some, constitutional; and some, more nearly absolute. In what respects do these forms of government differ?

The government of Israel was changed from patriarchal to judges, and from judges to kings, as the conditions and demands of the people made necessary. (Judges 1:16–19; I Sam. 8:6–9; 10:19; Hos. 13:11.)

The Kings of Israel; Causes of Captivity and Overthrow. On condition of obedience, God promised to make His people lights and leaders for all nations. He said, "And it shall come to pass, if thou shalt hearken diligently unto the voice of the Lord thy God, to observe and to do all His commandments which I command thee this day, that the Lord thy God will set thee on high above all the nations of the earth: and all these blessings shall come on thee, if thou shalt hearken unto the voice of the Lord thy God . . . . The Lord shall cause thine enemies that rise up against thee to be smitten before thy face: they shall come out against thee one way, and shall flee before thee seven ways . . . . And all the people of the earth shall see that thou art called by the name of the Lord; and they shall be afraid of thee."—*Deut. 28:1, 2, 7, 10.* In Jeremiah's time he told them that if they should observe the Sabbath properly, Jerusalem should stand forever. (Jer.

17: 24, 25.) But Satan made Israel dissatisfied with God's plan of government, and led them to ask for a king like the nations around them. God gave them a king, but when because of their apostasy He could not use them as a nation to teach the nations around them, He scattered them among the nations of the world to do, as individuals, the work that they would not do as a nation. (Read Deut. 7:2–6; 28:47–49, 63–65; Jud. 3:11–15.)

The Jewish nation so far apostatized that God had to reject them as a nation, and destroy Jerusalem, the city in which they trusted. Christ warned His disciples of the danger of trusting in the city and the temple of the Jews. The destruction of Jerusalem, which He foretold, came in A. D. 70, just in the right time to save the new church from centering too much in Jerusalem. All the Christians in and around Jerusalem were scattered abroad before the city was destroyed, and went everywhere preaching the Word and encouraging the believers who had gone out from Pentecost.

Changes Which Brought About Church Organization. Israel's government was theocratic in form; that is, God ruled by direct instruction in both religious and civil affairs. He was the head of both Church and State. When they chose a king, because dissatisfied with God's plan, he spoke to the king through His prophets. He allowed them to have a king so long as they followed His instructions. When they sought to be like the heathen, he allowed them to go into captivity to learn of the cruelty of the heathen. "Nevertheless, He regarded their afflictions when He heard their cry; and He remembered for them His covenant." When they would return to a careful observance of the forms of the sanctuary services, God gave them rest from their enemies. But Satan made

them very zealous for these ceremonies, to which they added many traditions. Because of their blindness they could not see a saviour in the lowly Jesus, the anti-type of their sacrifices, who taught them that men are not saved through ceremonies or through any nation or earthly government, but through faith and obedience to God. As Christ finished His earthly ministry, He commissioned all His followers to carry on the work which he had commenced. That this work might be conducted regularly and systematically, the believers were organized into companies or churches; but they were not given civil authority. They received from heaven their credentials to go to every nation, kindred, tongue, and people, as ambassadors for the kingdom of God. Church and State were to be kept separate.

Relation between Church and State. "The apostle plainly outlined the attitude believers should sustain toward civil authorities: 'Submit yourselves to every ordinance of man for the Lord's sake: whether it be to the king, as supreme; or unto governors, as unto them that are sent by him for the punishment of evil doers, and for the praise of them that do well. For so is the will of God, that with well-doing ye may put to silence the ignorance of foolish men; as free, and not using your liberty for a cloak of maliciousness, but as the servants of God. Honor all men. Love the brotherhood. Fear God. Honor the king.' "—*Acts of the Apostles, page 522.*

"The principle for which the disciples stood so fearlessly when, in answer to the command not to speak any more in the name of Jesus, they declared, 'Whether it be right in the sight of God to hearken unto you more than unto God, judge ye,' is the same that the adherents of the gospel struggled to maintain in the days of the Reformation. . . . .

"This principle we in our day are to maintain; the banner of truth and religious liberty held aloft by the founders of the gospel church and by God's witnesses during the centuries that have passed since then, has, in this last conflict, been committed to our hands. The responsibility for this great gift rests with those whom God has blessed with a knowledge of His word. We are to receive this word as supreme authority. We are to recognize human government as an ordinance of divine appointment, and teach obedience to it as a sacred duty, within its legitimate sphere. But when its claims conflict with the claims of God, we must obey God rather than man. God's word must be recognized as above all human legislation. A 'Thus saith the Lord' is not to be set aside for a 'Thus saith the church' or a 'Thus saith the State.' The crown of Christ is to be lifted above the diadems of earthly potentates."—*Acts of the Apostles, pp. 68, 69.*

The Organization and Work of the Church. "The church is God's appointed agency for the salvation of men. It was organized for service, and its mission is to carry the gospel to the world. From the beginning it has been God's plan that through His church shall be reflected to the world His fullness and His sufficiency. The members of the church, those whom He has called out of darkness into the marvelous light, are to show forth His glory. The church is the repository of the riches of the glory of Christ; and through the church will eventually be made manifest, even to the 'principalities and powers of heavenly places,' the final and full display of the love of God."

"The church is God's fortress, His city of refuge, which He holds in a revolted world. Any betrayal of the church is treachery to Him who has bought mankind with the blood of His only begotten son."

"Wonderful is the work which the Lord designs to accomplish through His church, that His name may be glorified. A picture of this work is given in Ezekiel's vision of the river of healing: 'These waters issue out toward the east country, and go down into the desert, and go into the sea: which being brought forth into the sea, the waters shall be healed. And it shall come to pass, that everything that liveth, which moveth, whithersoever the rivers shall come, shall live , . . . and by the river upon the bank thereof, on this side and on that side, shall grow all trees for meat, whose leaf shall not fade, neither shall the fruit thereof be consumed: it shall bring forth new fruit according to his months, because their waters issue out of the sanctuary: and the fruit thereof shall be for meat, and the leaf thereof for medicine.' "—*Acts of the Apostles, pp. 9, 11. 13.*

The first Christian church . . . . felt that the salvation, or the loss of a world, depended upon their instrumentality. They cast in their all and held themselves in readiness to go or come at the Lord's bidding."—*Testimonies for the Church, Vol. V, pp. 156, 157.*

Attitude toward Apostasy. The seven churches of the second and third chapters of Revelations are seven periods of the Christian church from the time of Christ until the end of time. The church at Ephesus is the apostolic church. Christ's message to this church states their attitude toward apostasy. It reads: "I know thy works, and thy labor, and thy patience, and how thou canst not bear them that are evil: and hast tried them which say they are apostles, and are not, and hast found them liars." —*Rev. 2:2.* The Holy Spirit worked with the apostles in condemning and reproving apostasy in the early church. (Read Acts 5:1–11.) "From the warning and pun-

ishment meted out to these perjurers, God would have us learn also how deep is His hatred and contempt for all hypocrisy and deception."

The Papacy—Its Gradual Development. For a time after the death of Ananias and Sapphira, all who were not fully converted were afraid to unite with the church, and the church was comparatively pure; but after a time the influence wore away, and Paul saw a change coming. He said that the mystery of iniquity was beginning to work even in his day, (2 Thess, 2:1-7) and in his last talk with the elders of the church at Ephesus he said, "For I know this, that after my departing shall grievous wolves enter in among you, not sparing the flock. Also of your own selves shall men arise, speaking perverse things, to draw away the disciples after them." —*Acts 20:29, 30.*

The fault of the church at Pergamos (Rev. 2:12-14) was that some of their number were believing the doctrine of Balaam, which was sun-worship. The church in Pergamos represents that period of the history of the church when Sunday-keeping was adopted by professed Christians. The change came about gradually. At first no one thought of giving up the true Sabbath; but there arose those who, after studying the sufferings of Christ, began to teach that it would be a good plan to honor Christ by remembering His sufferings on Friday in observing a fast, or partial fast, on that day. They also taught that because Christ rose from the grave on the first day of the week, Sunday should be observed with fasting and rejoicing. So for a time many people kept Friday as a fast day, Saturday as the Sabbath, and Sunday as a day of rejoicing. Then Satan brought a civil persecution against the Jews, and many of the professed Christians, who had not given up their pagan ways, did not want to be called Jews. The

Jews of course kept the seventh-day Sabbath, and the pagans kept the first day of the week. These half-converted Christians reasoned that if they kept the Seventh-day Sabbath they would be called Jews, and that God is not so particular about the day as He is of the spirit of worship; and if they remember His sufferings on Friday and His resurrection on Sunday, God would accept them. In this way, Sabbath-keeping was dropped and Sunday-keeping took its place. In the course of time those who still kept the seventh-day Sabbath, instead of Sunday, were regarded as narrow-minded and fanatical. Laws were passed to compel all to keep Sunday, and those who refused were persecuted severely.

In the same way that Sunday-keeping was introduced into the church, many other false doctrines were adopted. In working out a method for settling the disputes which arose over doctrinal points, it seemed necessary to give a great deal of authority to some man, and in 538 A. D. the Bishop of Rome was made head over all the churches and corrector of heretics. He could punish or put to death any one whom he might think to be teaching wrong doctrines. This was the beginning of that long period of papal persecution, which lasted 1260 years—from 538 to 1798 A. D.

Persecution Waged by the Papacy. The persecutions of these times were indeed terrible. Scott's Church History says: "No computation can reach the number who have been put to death, in different ways, on account of their maintaining the profession of the gospel, and opposing the corruptions of the Church or Rome. A million of poor Waldenses perished in France; nine hundred thousand orthodox Christians were slain in less than thirty years after the institution of the order of the Jesuits. The Duke of Alva

boasted of having put to death in the Netherlands thirty-six thousand by the hand of the common executioner during the space of a few years. The Inquisition destroyed, by various tortures, one hundred and fifty thousand within thirty years. These are a few specimens, and but a few, of those which history has recorded. But the total will never be known till the earth shall disclose her blood, and no more cover her slain."—*Daniel and Revelation, pp. 178, 181,* edition of 1907. Wars, crusades, massacres, inquisitions, and persecutions of all kinds, were their weapons of destruction. "In corroboration of these facts fifty million martyrs,—this is the lowest computation made by any historian,—will rise up in the judgment as witnesses against her bloody work."

Methods of Meeting Opposition. One of the first means always employed by Satan's representatives to silence the truth is to put to death as many as possible of those who by life and teaching expose their error. Thus Cain slew Abel; Pharaoh slew the boys among the children of Israel; the men of Babylon cast Daniel into the lions' den, and his companions into the fiery furnace; and Herod, soon after the birth of Christ, put to death all the babies in Judea who were not more than two years old.

Following this work, the papacy thought to rid herself of the powerful influence of the people of God, by attempting, first, to annihilate them. Thus hundreds of thousands were put to death in a vain effort to silence the Reformation. "When the body of Huss had been wholly consumed, his ashes, with the soil upon which they rested, were gathered up and cast into the Rhine, and thus borne onward to the ocean. His persecutors vainly imagined that they had rooted out the truth he preached. Little did they dream that the ashes that day borne away to the sea

were to be as seed scattered in all the countries of the earth; that in lands yet unknown it would yield abundant fruit in witnesses for the truth."—*Great Controversy, page 110.*

Suppression of the Bible. Preaching in an Unknown Tongue. So long as the Bible was freely circulated and read by the common people, errors of the papacy were easily exposed. Another means employed to silence the work of God's people, was to make a war upon the Bible—stop its circulation, and make the people think it could not be understood except by a certain educated class. All the church services were conducted in Latin. This the common people could not understand, but the priests claimed it was necessary in order to keep the religion pure, but "it had been Rome's policy, under a profession of reverence for the Bible, to keep it locked up in an unknown tongue and hidden away from the people."

Counter Reforms. Another method employed by the papacy, when others failed, was to start a counter-reform. That is, when a reform, started outside the church, threatened to remodel the work of the church, a reform would be started within the church, but would touch only such points and go only so far as was necessary to quiet the agitation, and make the people think there was no need of any change in the church.

The Christian Church in the "Wilderness"; Reformers and Their Work. During the 1260 years of papal rule, it seemed at times as though there would be no one left to bear witness for the truth, so relentless were the persecutions of those times. But God never permitted all His people to be destroyed. The Waldenses were a class of people who refused to adopt the papal doctrines and found refuge from persecution in the Piedmont Valley, among the Alps

Mountains between Italy and France. They kept the true Sabbath, and made many copies of the Scriptures, which they distributed as they went among the people selling merchandise. These people did much to prepare the way for the work of the Reformation of the sixteenth century. "Notwithstanding the crusades against them, and the inhuman butchery to which they were subjected, they continued to send out their missionaries to scatter the precious truth. They were hunted to the death; yet their blood watered the seed sown, and it failed not of yielding fruit. Thus the Waldenses witnessed for God, centuries before the birth of Luther. Scattered over many lands, they planted the seeds of the Reformation that began in the time of Wycliffe, grew broad and deep in the days of Luther, and is to be carried forward to the close of time by those who also are willing to suffer all things for 'the Word of God, and for the testimony of Jesus Christ.' "

"Except among the Waldenses, the Word of God had for ages been locked up in languages known only to the learned; but the time had come for the scriptures to be translated, and given to the people of different lands in their native tongue. The world had passed its midnight. The hours of darkness were wearing away, and in many lands appeared tokens of the coming dawn."—*Great Controversy, pp. 78, 79.*

John Wycliffe. John Wycliffe, "The Morning Star of the Reformation," was born in Yorkshire, England, 1324. He received a liberal education, and when in school commenced the study of the Scriptures. He taught the Bible in the university at Oxford, England, and translated a portion of the Scriptures for the common people. His followers are called Lollards.

Other Men of God. Luther and Melancthon were

used by God to break the power of the papacy in Germany; Huss and Jerome in Bohemia; and John Calvin in France.

"The spirit of liberty went with the Bible. Wherever the gospel was received, the minds of the people were awakened. They began to cast off the shackles that had held them bond slaves of ignorance, vice, and superstition. They began to think and act as men. Monarchs saw it and trembled for their despotism."—*Great Controversy, page 277.*

Counter-Reforms Conducted by the Papacy; Loyola and the Jesuits. The schools conducted by the Christians formed one of the strongest weapons against the papacy. As the children and youth were gathered into these schools, they were taught the Word of God, and each made copies of portions of it for his own use. As these young people from these schools were scattered into all lands, they carried with them the Scriptures and taught them to the people.

A system of education called The Society of Jesus, and nicknamed Jesuits, was established among the Catholics in 1540 by Ignatius Loyola, a native of Spain. The founder of the society had been a military officer, but being forced to give up that work on account of wounds received, he devoted his life to the work of overthrowing the Reformation Painter in his "History of Education," says, "This order, established by Ignatius Loyola, found its special mission in combating the Reformation. As the most effective means of arresting the progress of Protestantism, it aimed at controlling education, particularly among the wealthy and nobles." Of its schools he says, "More than any other agency, it stayed the progress of the Reformation, and it even succeeded in winning back territory already conquered by Protestantism."

"The Earth Helps the Woman." The Mental Awakening of Europe; Discovery of America. The prophecy of Revelation 12 shows that when the forces of Satan should cast out a flood of persecution against the people of God, their place of refuge would be found in the "wilderness" and the floods should be swallowed up by the earth. This was literally true. The Piedmont Valley formed a safe retreat in the Alps, and God led men of science and learning to make inventions and discoveries which contradicted the teachings of the Catholic church, thus exposing some of its errors, and causing many to lose confidence in the church. The attention of thinking men, everywhere, was given to learning and business enterprises instead of persecuting the saints. In our next section we shall note how God brought about, through these means, the discovery of America.

By all for which the martyrs bore their agony
and shame;
By all the warning words of truth with which
the prophets came;
By the Future which awaits us; by all the
hopes which cast
Their faint and trembling beams across the
blackness of the Past;
And by the blessed thought of Him who for
Earth's freedom died,
O my people, O my brothers! let us choose
the righteous side.

—*Whittier.*

SECTION II.
Period of American Discoveries and Explorations

1. Preliminary Preparations.
    1[1] General condition of Europe.
        1[2] Religious affairs.
            1[3] The Crusades, 1096-1299.—Note 1.
                1[4] Purpose and character of.
                2[4] Influence of, upon trade, travel, and commerce.
        2[2] Political affairs.—Note 2.
            1[3] Principal nations taking part in the discoveries, etc.
                1[4] Spain, Portugal, France, and England.
    2[1] Travel and Commerce.
        1[2] Influence of Arabian education.—Note 3.
        2[2] Inventions which aid.
        3[2] The Northmen.
        4[2] Marco Polo and his book.
        5[2] John Mandeville, his travels and book.
        6[2] Trade with the far East—character of.
            1[3] Nations engaged—Italy, Spain, and Portugal.
            2[3] Rival Cities—Venice and Genoa.—Note 4.
            3[3] Trade routes and their difficulties.
                1[4] Effect of the fall of Constantinople, 1453.
    3[1] Portuguese Explorations, 1418-1487.—Note 5.
        1[2] Plans and work of Prince Henry the Navigator.
        2[2] Discovery of the Cape of Good Hope, 1487, by Diaz.
2. American Discoverers and Explorers.

1[1] Spanish.
  1[2] Columbus—Biographical Sketch.
    1[3] His ideas and plans.
    2[3] Mistakes in his theories—importance of.
    3[3] Difficulties in the way of carrying out his plans.
    4[3] Voyages and discoveries.
      1[4] 1492, visited San Salvador, Conception, Cuba, and Hayti.
      2[4] 1493, visited Windward group, Jamaica, and Porto Rico.
      3[4] 1498, visited Trinidad and South America.
      4[4] 1502, visited Central America.
      5[4] Results, and their importance.
  2[2] Amerigo Vespucci—naming the Continent.
    1[3] Four voyages, explored coast of South America, and was the first to suggest a new continent; 1499–1504.
  3[2] Ponce de Leon—1512.
    Discovered and named Florida.
  4[2] Balboa, 1513.
    1[3] Crossed Isthmus of Darien, discovered Pacific Ocean.
  5[2] Cordova, 1517.
    1[3] Explored Yucatan.
  6[2] Cortez.
    1[3] With eleven vessels and 600 men conquered Mexico, 1519–1521.
    2[3] Attempted settlement near Jamestown. Used Negro slaves, 1524.
  7[2] Vasquez de Ayllon, 1520.
    1[3] Discoveries and explorations along coast of South Carolina, and kidnapped a number of Indians for slaves.
  8[2] Magellan, 1519–1522.

1[3] Discovered and named Magellan Strait. Named the Pacific Ocean; reached India by South-west passage, and circumnavigated the earth.

9[2] Narvaez, 1528.

1[3] Explored Florida.

10[2] Ferdinand De Soto, 1539–1542.

1[3] Explored southern states. Discovered Mississippi River.

11[2] Pizarro, 1531–36.

1[3] Conquered Peru.

12[2] Coronado, 1540.

1[3] Explored New Mexico and Arizona.

13[2] Cabrillo, 1542.

1[3] Explored the Pacific coast as far north as Oregon.

14[2] Early Settlements.

NAME	PLACE	LEADER	DATE
Isabella	Hayti	Columbus	1493
Santa Maria	Darien	Balboa and Encisco	1510
Hispaniola (Tucson)	Arizona	Jesuits	1560
St. Augustine	Florida	Melendez	1565
Santa Fe	New Mexico	Espejo	1582

15[2] "Line of Demarkation."

1[3] Location.

2[3] Purpose.

2[1] French.

1[2] Denys, 1506.

1[3] Explored and drew a map of the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

2[2] John Verrazano, 1524.

1[3] Explored Atlantic coast from Cape Fear to Newfoundland. Named the country New France. Described the Indians.

3[2] James Cartier.

1[3] Explored and named Gulf and River St. Lawrence, 1534.

2[3] Ascended the St. Lawrence River and named Montreal, 1535.

4[2] Ribault, sent out by Admiral Coligny, 1562.

1[3] Built Fort Carolina and attempted a settlement on Port Royal Harbor, South Carolina.

5[2] Laudonniere, sent out by Admiral Coligny, 1564.

1[3] Attempted a settlement called Fort Caroline on the St. John's River, Florida.

6[2] DeGourges, 1568.

1[3] Destroyed a Spanish settlement on the St. John's River, Fla. Why?

7[2] De Monts, 1605.

1[3] First permanent French settlement in America. Port Royal, N. S.

8[2] Samuel Champlain (The Father of New France).

1[3] Founded Quebec, 1608.

2[3] Discovered Lake Champlain, explored the St. Lawrence to Lake Huron, 1609.

9[2] Jesuit priests.

1[3] LaSalle claimed the Mississippi valley for France.

1[4] Discovered Ohio and Illinois Rivers, 1669.

2[4] Reached the mouth of the Mississippi River and named Louisiana, 1682.

2[3] James Marquette and Louis Joliet, 1673.

1[4] Explored the central and upper part of the Mississippi.

3[1] English.

1[2] John Cabot, 1498.

1[3] Explored coast of Labrador and planted

the English flag; also the banner of the Republic of Venice. Why?

2[2] Sebastian Cabot, 1498.

1[3] Explored coast from Nova Scotia to the middle states.

3[2] Martin Frobisher, 1576.

1[3] Explored coast from Baffin Bay to strait which bears his name.

4[2] Sir Francis Drake, 1577–1579.

1[3] Explored the Pacific coast north to Oregon and then returned home by the western route and thus circumnavigated the earth.

2[3] Discovered tobacco near Tobaco, West Indies, hence the name.

5[2] Amidas and Barlow, 1584.

1[3] Explored Atlantic coast from Albermarle Sound to Roanoke Island.

6[2] Sir Humphrey Gilbert, 1582–1583.

1[3] Attempt to colonize Newfoundland.

7[2] Davis, 1585.

1[3] Discovered strait which bears his name.

8[2] Sir Walter Raleigh, 1584–1587.

1[3] Charter obtained. Expedition sent out under Amidas and Barlow 1584. Naming of the country.

2[3] Attempt to colonize Roanoke Island, 1585. Cape Fear named because of its storms. Tobacco and potatoes found. Colonists return to England, 1586.

3[3] Second attempt to form a colony under John White, 1587. Virginia Dare born, Aug. 18, 1587. The "Lost Colony."

9[2] Bartholomew Gosnold, 1602.

1[3] Reached America by direct voyage. Explored the coast of Massachusetts.

Named Cape Cod.
10^2 Martin Pring, 1603.
1^3 Discovered Penobscot Bay.
11^2 William Baffin, 1616.
1^3 Discovered Baffin Bay.
4^1 Portuguese.
1^2 Vasco da Gama, 1497–1498.
1^3 Reached India by way of Africa
2^2 Cabral, 1500.
1^3 With 13 vessels and 1200 men started to Hindustan; discovered Brazil and named it Terra de Santa Cruz.
5^1 Dutch.
1^2 Sir Henry Hudson (an Englishman in Dutch employ).
1^3 Discovered Hudson River, 1609.
2^3 Discovered Hudson Bay, 1610.

3. Results summarized.—Note 6.
1^1 Extent of European explorations.
2^1 Influence of Europeans in America.
3^1 Influence of the discovery of America on Europe.
4^1 Rival claims.

NOTES

Note 1.—The Crusades, 1096–1299. During the middle ages it became popular for the pope and priests to require, as a form of penance, lone pilgrimages to Jerusalem, or some spot visited by Christ or His disciples. It became a general belief that in order to atone for the greatest sin one had only to bathe in the Jordan or spend a night on Calvary.

The Saracen caliphs, who held control of Palestine, treated the pilgrims with much kindness, and even encouraged such pilgrimages because of the revenue they were receiving from them. But when Palestine

fell into the hands of the Mohammedan Turks, the Catholics were insulted and persecuted severely. As the news of their persecutions spread throughout Europe, the sentiment quickly prevailed that since it was a righteous act to make these pilgrimages to the Holy Land, it would be a righteous act also to redeem the land from the hands of the heathen. Peter the Hermit, stirred by what he had seen and experienced while on a pilgrimage to Jerusalem, resolved to rescue the holy sepulchre. With the encouragement of the pope, he traveled through Italy and France, and collected a large army to engage in what was called the Holy War. They marched against Jerusalem, massacred 7,000 infidels, and burned the Jews in their synagogues. They took possession of the city and founded "The Latin Kingdom of Jerusalem," which continued until 1187, when it fell into the hands of the Egyptians. Peter the Hermit conducted the first crusade.

Several crusades—holy wars—followed, either for the purpose of extending the conquests of the Catholics, or of recapturing Palestine. Germany and England also were interested, and took part in them.

These wars had several important influences. Though they failed to accomplish their direct object, they held back for a time the Mohammedan invasion of Europe, and greatly increased the wealth and power of the Catholic church. At the same time influences were set to work which did much to weaken the power of the pope and overthrow despotic rule in the nations. Many haughty knights and nobles were forced to grant rights and privileges to the cities and to the common people in order to secure funds for their work. The rude people of the West, by coming in contact with the more polished nations of the East, gained from them refinement and culture. Knowl-

edge of the sciences and learning of the East, gained by the crusades, awakened a desire for geographical discovery. These crusades also brought western Europe into touch with the wealth and commerce of the East. During this period Venice, Genoa, and Pisa became noted for their commerce with the East Indies. The explorations of John Mandeville and Marco Polo were inspired by this revival of learning, and the accounts which they published of their travels in Asia and Europe did much to encourage Columbus a hundred years later.

Note 2.—Political Affairs. In His infinite wisdom and knowledge God works in mysterious ways to accomplish His purposes. Long before conditions are ready for the gospel to advance in countries where it has not yet entered, He prepares agencies by which it is to be done. Knowing how all Europe would become Catholic, He divided the political power among several nations, so that by sections, or nations, He might give liberty to His people. Each nation has its place and part in God's great plan. The principal nations of Western Europe, which took part in the discoveries and explorations of this period, were Spain, Portugal, France, and England. God gave to each of these some part of the great work of exploration for the purpose of opening the way for America to receive and give the gospel. The jealousy and rivalry among the nations only helped them to do more quickly the work each was to do in sending out men to explore new countries.

Note 3.—Influence of Arabian Education; Inventions. For a time the Arabians were the leaders in education. They had schools in Africa, Spain, and other countries. They originated chemistry, developed mathematics to a high degree, and applied the pendulum to the reckoning of time. It was through

the influence of the Arabian schools in Spain that the mariner's compass, astrolabe, and other inventions for the use of sailors, with many maps and charts of the stars and parts of the earth, were introduced at the right time to prepare for the discovery of America.

Note 4.—Rival Cities. Their Routes. Fall of Constantinople. The cities of Venice on the Adriatic Sea, and Genoa on the Mediterranean Sea, were the principal cities engaged in commerce with the East. Each city had a route of its own. The spices and silks were carried from India by ships into the Red Sea and unloaded at the north end. Here they were taken up by caravans of camels and carried to the Nile, or to Alexandria, then again placed upon boats which carried them to Venice. Or they were carried by boats through the Persian Gulf, and then transferred by caravans up the Black Sea, where they were again placed upon boats and carried to Genoa through Constantinople. But in 1453 Constantinople was captured by the Mohammedans who refused to allow the commerce of Catholics to pass through their city. This practically destroyed the commerce of Genoa, and set men to seeking some other way to get to India with their vessels.

Note 5.—Prince Henry the Navigator; Diaz. The little kingdom of Portugal was one of the leaders in sending out vessels to explore the coast and search for an all-water route to India. Portuguese sailors were seen and known in every port. They had discovered the Azores, the Madeira, and the Cape Verde Islands. Prince Henry the Navigator had achieved great success for his country. He explored the western coast of Africa, and opened up a rich commerce in gold dust, ivory, and gums. For forty years Portuguese sailors were exploring the

western coast of Africa with hopes of finding a way around that continent to India. When the southern cape was discovered, ships encountered such severe storms that it was named Cape Storm, but the king of Portugal, encouraged by the discovery of the southern end of Africa, named it Cape of Good Hope. In 1487 Bartholomew Diaz succeeded in sailing around Africa and anchoring his vessel safely on the coast of India.

Note 6.—Results Summarized. As a result of the success of Columbus's voyages, new fields of industry were opened to the world. Each of the four great nations of Europe—England, France, Spain, and Portugal—in its search for an all-water route to India, made explorations in different portions of America, and for a time each occupied its separate territory.

Though disappointed in their efforts to find a shorter route to the wealth of India, the explorers and early settlers found in America articles of even greater value to Europe than the rich silks and spices of the far East. Quinine, Indian corn, potatoes, tomatoes, and turkeys were not known in Europe until carried there by the explorers returning from America.

The cod fish industry off the banks of Newfoundland became a source of wealth to the American colonies and furnished an inexhaustible fish supply for the poorer classes of Europe and America.

Sugar, rice, and cotton brought to Europe from the East Indies sold at prices so high that only the rich could afford them. The Spanish explorers found them growing wild in America, and Columbus carried home with him some cotton cloth made by the natives of the West Indies. These articles now so extensively cultivated in the southern states and West In-

dies are in general use throughout the civilized world. Cocoa and tobacco also were found in America and introduced into Europe.

One very important result of the explorations of the sixteenth century was the sudden increase of geographical knowledge which made it necessary to construct an entirely new map of the world. No previous map had shown the continents of North and South America and the Pacific Ocean. This revelation of facts concerning the world "was a surprise to men's minds, which kindled imagination, wakened ideas, shattered many old bigotries of ignorance, emboldened both action and thought, and set a vigorous spirit of adventure and enterprise astir. By shifting the main seats of navigation and commerce from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic coast of Europe, they brought fresh races into the lead of the world's work."

The objects of the leading European nations in making explorations and settlements in America differed as follows:—

Spain: Her purpose seems to have been primarily that of conquest for territory, and plunder for wealth.

Soon after the discovery of America, the Spanish flag was firmly planted over the West Indies, the southern part of what is now the United States, over Mexico, and Peru. Through the conquest of the civilized Indians of Mexico and Peru, Spain acquired immense fortunes of gold and silver and rapidly rose to be the most powerful nation in Europe.

England: The English had an altogether different object in view. They held longer to their first purpose which was to find a western or north-western passage to India. They explored the eastern coast of America hoping to find a waterway through the continent. Attracted by the fur-trade with the Indi-

ans and the opportunities for permanent homes where they might enjoy both civil and religious freedom, they were led to form many thrifty colonies here.

France: The early French explorations were conducted principally by the French Jesuits whose purpose was missionary work among the Indians. However, along the St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes, they established forts for the protection of their fur-trade with the Indians. "So we find a grim spirit of missionary zeal mingled with a thirst for gold. The cross was planted in the wilderness and the soldiers knelt in thanksgiving on the ground stained by the blood of their heretical neighbors."

Portugal: The Portuguese were limited in American possessions to Brazil but they developed into the leading slave traders of the world.

Then, pale and worn, he kept his deck
And peered through darkness. Ah, that night
Of all dark nights! And then a speck—
A light! a light! a light! a light!
It grew, a starlit flag unfurled!
It grew to be Time's burst of dawn.
He gained a world; he gave that world
Its greatest lesson: "On! sail on!"

—*From "Columbus" by Joaquin Miller.*

SECTION III.

Period of American Colonization or The Beginning of the American Nation

1. State the relation of the geographical features of a country to the history of the people.—Note 1.
2. Contrast North and South America with regard to the following geographical influences and show why a strong nation should quickly develop in North America rather than in South America:
   1¹ Natural resources.
   2¹ Adaptability to a variety of people and industries.
   3¹ Physical features and soils.
   4¹ Climate and rainfall.
   5¹ Rivers and harbors.
   6¹ Distance from countries already developed.
   7¹ Natural highways to the interior of the country and their relation to the early and later history of the people.—Note 2.
3. Divine object in the reservation of America.
4. Principles to be developed and established.
   1¹ Republicanism and Protestantism. (A representative government with church and state separate.)
5. Motives for colonization and preliminary movements.
   1¹ On the part of England in granting charters and sending out colonies.—Note 3.
   2¹ On the part of the settlers.—Note 4.
   3¹ On the part of both settlers and government in the formation of colonization companies.—Note 5.
6. The thirteen English Colonies:

1[1] Virginia—settlement.
  1[2] When—1607.
  2[2] Where—Jamestown.
  3[2] Why—The purpose of the London Company was to establish the English nation in America and form a commercial center. The purpose of the settlers was to obtain riches and honor, and then return to England.
  4[2] Character of the colonists,—unwilling to work and unused to hard work; reckless and adventurous.
  5[2] Events having an influence upon Protestant and Republican principles.
    1[3] Religious matters.
      1[4] Principal religion—Episcopalian.
      2[4] Persecution of Quakers.
    2[3] Educational matters.
      1[4] A system of schools established very early.
      2[4] William and Mary College founded, 1693.
    3[3] Forms of government.
      1[4] Charter, seventeen years, 1607 to 1624.
        1[5] First charter, two years.
          1[6] Provisions of.—Note 6.
        2[5] Second charter, three years.
          1[6] Provisions of.—Note 7.
        3[5] Third charter, twelve years.
          Provisions of.—Note 8.
      4[3] First Colonial Assembly, 1619.
      5[3] Labor questions.
        1[4] Indentured white servants.
        2[4] African slavery introduced, 1619.
      6[3] First written constitution, 1621.
      7[3] Indian Massacres, 1622, 1644.

8^3 Navigation Acts, 1631, 1651, 1660, 1663.—Note 9.
1^4 Causes.
2^4 Provisions.
3^4 Results.
9^3 Bacon's Rebellion, 1676.—Note 10.
1^4 Cause.
2^4 Events.
3^4 Results.
6^2 Important events unclassified.
1^3 Work and influence of John Smith.
2^3 The Starving-time, 1609–1610.
1^4 Cause.
2^4 Effect.
3^3 Cultivation of tobacco, 1612.

NOTES

Note 1.—The Relation of Geography to History. The geographical features of a country which influence the history of its people are its water courses and coast lines, its climate and vegetation, its mountain ranges and mineral productions. Deep, quiet rivers make good channels for transportation and the people of the country are quite sure to be farmers where these rivers are skirted by broad fertile valleys. Rivers having a very swift current afford excellent water-power, which encourages manufacturing industries. Usually the valleys along such rivers are narrow and the farms, if any, are small. Most of the people live in towns which they build around the factories. If there are good harbors along the coast, large cities are sure to spring up and the people engage in ship-building, fishing, commerce, etc. If the country has mountain ranges covered with large forests, the people will engage in lumbering. If there are deposits of valuable minerals or precious metals, mining will be an important industry. If climatic

conditions favor a luxuriant growth of vegetation, the people will be farmers, stock raisers, or fruit growers, according to conditions.

The class of people attracted to a country depends largely upon the industrial anvantages offered by that country. Where the natural resources are quite evenly distributed over the country, all classes of people may be attracted to it and all parts of it will develop uniformly unless there are mountain ranges or other obstructions to keep the settlers out. A mountain range difficult of passage may check immigration and hold the people out of a section of the country for a long time, until another section is thickly settled and large cities and a strong government are well established. Such a condition did exist in America during the colonial period. The Appalachian Mountains and hostile Indian tribes served as a barrier to the westward course of English settlements.

Note 2.—Natural Highways into the Country. A careful study of the maps will show the superior advantages North America had over South America in natural roadways to the interior of the continent. How many good harbors do you find on the Atlantic coast of North America? Of South America? On the west coast of each continent? If the early explorers had discovered the Pacific coast first instead of the Atlantic, could they have formed so many prosperous settlements or have gotten into the interior of the country so well as by entering from the east? Why? Trace and count the natural roadways which the early explorers traveled in exploring America. Trace an almost all-water route across the continent from the mouth of the St. Lawrence to the mouth of the Columbia River.

Note 3.—Colonization Motives on part of England. Raleigh's attempts at colonization had failed

of establishing permanent colonies, but they had interested merchants and noblemen in America. He gave the following reasons why a colony in America would be a good thing for England: *First*, the time would come when not enough grain and other food could be raised on the British Isles to support the population. This was especially true since so many farms had been made into sheep pastures. A colony in America would afford more room for their population, and produce all the food needed and to spare. *Second*, since so many farms in England were turned into pastures a large part of their population was thrown out of employment. A colony in America would be a good place for this poor class to find employment, since in a new country there is always work for all. *Third*, such a colony would make a good stopping point for ships searching for a northwest passage to India, and it would also give great help in weakening the power of Spain. *Fourth*, "Then, too," said Raleigh, "think what a fine market such a colony would make for English goods. Her trade would help England to grow richer."

Note 4.—Colonization Motives on part of Setlers. During the Dark Ages there had been but one church in western Europe. The pope was the head of that church and no one dared question or deny his authority. But in 1517 commenced in Germany the Protestant Reformation under Luther. By means of the press Luther's teachings were published all over Europe and a great discussion arose between the followers of the pope and of the reformer. These discussions often led to much ill-feeling, to persecutions, and even to war. This condition in Europe, together with the bright prospects for securing wealth in America, led hundreds and thousands of people to eave their homes and relatives in the old world to makehomes in the new.

Note 5.—Colonization Companies Formed. It has been shown that there were but few gold mines in America and no great cities whose inhabitants were ready to engage in commerce with the merchants of Europe. Possessions in America would be valuable only as a constituency should be built up to possess the land and with which to conduct commerce. When the merchants of London and Plymouth began to comprehend the situation they asked the king for permission to open colonies and induce settlers to go to America. King James I was anxious to have English colonies planted in America and therefore in 1606 he formed two companies of those asking for charters. These were the London Company, whose grant extended over four degrees of latitude (between parallels thirty-four and thirty-eight) northward from Cape Fear; and the Plymouth Company, whose territory lay between parallels forty-one and forty-five. King James, anxious to be at peace with France and Spain, took care that his grant to these companies might not conflict with their possessions. Therefore his first grants of land extended only one hundred miles inland from the coast. By later grants England claimed from ocean to ocean.

Note 6.—Provisions of First Charter. The land was to be free from military or other service to the king, but he was to receive one-fifth part of any precious metals that might be found there.

Over every colony planted by the London Company the king was to appoint a Superior Council of Thirteen men residing in England and subject to his will. This English council was to appoint another council of thirteen residing in the colony known as the Inferior Council. This council was to choose its own president who also was to be governor of the colony

and was to manage the affairs of the colony subject to the Superior Council.

Perhaps the most important provision made by the charter is the one by which the king guaranteed to the colonists and their descendants the same rights and privileges "as if they had been abiding and born within this realm of England." This article was appealed to a century and a half later when the Virginia colony was resisting the Stamp Act, 1765.

Following the charter, many additional instructions were given by the king which required,—

1. That the church of England should be maintained as the only form of worship.

2. That for five years there should be no private ownership of lands, but the products of each man's labor were to be placed in the company's warehouse from which all were to be fed and clothed.

3. Each settlement was to explore all water-ways near it leading into the country with the hope of finding a passage to the Pacific.

4. Trial by jury was granted in serious crime.

Note 7.—Provisions of the Second Charter. In 1609 the boundaries of the territory of the London Company were changed. The grant now extended from "sea to sea, west and north-west;" the eastern boundary being the coast for two hundred miles north and the same distance south from Old Point Comfort. This grant became the basis of Virginia's claim to the Ohio valley at the time of the French and Indian War.

Members of the Superior Council, instead of being appointed by the king, were to be chosen by the stockholders. This council had power to elect a governor from their own number, who, when elected, had power to rule by military law and could hang a man without trial by jury.

By this charter, also, Catholics were virtually shut out of the colony for it forbade any emigrants' settling in Virginia who would not take the Oath of Supremacy by which the supreme authority of the pope was denied.

Note 8.—Provisions of the Third Charter. By the provisions of the third charter the Superior Council was abolished and the powers of that body transferred to the stock-holders, who could elect their own officers and decide all questions of right and law. This was a great step toward a democratic form of government.

Note 9.—Navigation Acts. (In all there were no less than twenty-nine acts of Parliament regulating the commerce of the colonies. All these laws applied alike to all the English colonies in America.) Date and Provisions:—

1. 1631—Tobacco must be exported solely to England.

2. 1651—All exports from England or her colonies must be carried by vessels owned and manned by Englishmen.

3. 1660—All colonial exports except what England did not want had to be sent to England.

4. 1663—All colonial imports had to come from England.

5. 1672—Duties were imposed on articles shipped from one colony to another.

Causes:—

A determination to make the industries of the colonies tributary to those of England, to give employment to English seamen, and to make a market for English goods.

Results:—

A naval war with Holland which decided the supremacy of England on the sea. England was

greatly enriched by colonial trade. Hostilities of the colonies toward the mother country and a tendency toward unjust legislation on the part of England, which became one of the causes of the Revolutionary War.

Note 10.—Bacon's Rebellion. Date and Cause.

1. 1676—One hundred years before the signing of the Declaration of Independence.

2. The government gradually usurped the power of the people.

3. The biennial election of the burgesses was abolished and the colonial officers extended their term indefinitely.

4. Suffrage was restricted by property qualifications, and unjust taxes were imposed.

5. The Indians made attacks upon the colonists, and the governor growing rich in the Indian traffic refused protection to them.

Results:—

Bacon, after defeating the Indians, was returning to Jamestown when Berkeley declared him and his fellows rebels, raised an army and marched against them. Bacon pushed his way into Jamestown, but fearing the arrival of an English fleet he burned the town. The governor fled and Williamsburg became the capital (1690). Bacon suddenly died and the movement came to an end. The oppression of the people increased. Fines, imprisonment, and confiscation of property followed, but the king disgusted with Berkeley's severity recalled him. Liberty of speech and of the press were restricted.

2^1 Massachusetts—settlement.

1^2 When—1620, 1628.

2^2 Where—Plymouth, Massachusetts Bay.

3^2 Why—Note 1.

4^2 Character of the colonists—contrast with Virginia.—Note 2.

5^2 Events having an influence upon Protestant and Republican principles.

1^3 Religious matters.

1^4 Principal religions, Puritan and Separatist.—Note 3.

2^4 First Thanksgiving Day, 1623.

3^4 Banishment of Roger Williams, 1635; Anne Hutchinson, 1637; John Wheelwright, 1636.

1^5 Cause for.

2^5 Biographical sketch of each.

4^4 Persecution and banishment of Quakers.—Note 4.

1^5 Time—1656-1661.

2^5 Cause.

3^5 Results.

5^4 The Salem Witchcraft.

1^5 Time.

2^5 Cause.

3^5 Events.

4^5 Results.

6^4 Missionary work among the Indians.—Note 5.

2^3 Educational matters.—Note 6.

1^4 Boston Latin School, 1635.

2^4 Harvard College founded, 1636. First American College.

3^4 Compulsory school law, 1647, 1789.

4^4 Free school established, 1649.

3^3 Forms of government.

1^4 Plymouth—Voluntary Association, afterward charter.

2^4 Massachusetts Bay—Charter.

1^5 Written constitution or Body of Liberties adopted by Massachusetts Bay Colony, 1641.

3[4] Union of the two colonies—Royal Province.
1[5] Time—1686-1689.
2[5] Cause—Prosperity of the colony, their independence in government, and the influence of reports by persons banished from colony because of religious views.
3[5] Results—Governor Andros appointed Royal Governor by the king. Land-titles annulled, quit-rents demanded for the king, colonial legislature dissolved. Freedom of press denied, but liberty of conscience in religious matters allowed.
4[4] Modified Charter, 1691-1776.—Note 7.
5[4] The New England town meeting—Its value.—Note 8.
4[3] Union of the New England Colonies—1643.
1[4] Colonies included.
1[5] Massachusetts, Connecticut, Plymouth, New Haven.
2[4] Colonies excluded.
1[5] Why? New Hampshire and Rhode Island were excluded from the New England Confederacy because they differed from Massachusetts on religion and government.
5[3] Indian affairs.
1[4] Early experiences with the Indians.
2[4] King Philip's War, 1675-1676.
1[5] Colonies engaged.
1[6] Massachusetts, Rhode Island,

and the frontier settlements of all New England.

2[5] Tribes engaged.

1[6] Wampanoags, Narragansetts, Nipmucks, and other New England tribes.

2[6] Influence of Eliot's missionary work.

3[5] Causes.

1[6] The prosperity and encroachment of the whites.

2[6] The unjust treatment of the Indians.

4[5] Results.

1[6] It cost the Colonies 13 towns, 600 lives, and more than $500,000.

2[6] The Narragansetts were almost entirely destroyed.

6[2] Events of interest unclassified.

1[3] Hooker's removal to the Connecticut valley.

1[4] When and why?

2[3] First printing press in the English Colonies set up at Cambridge, 1639.

3[3] First American newspaper published at Boston, 1704.

4[3] First issue of paper money, 1690—$133,338.00.

1[4] Cause—to meet expense of General Phipp's expedition against Port Royal and Quebec.

5[3] England and her American Colonies adopt the Gregorian calendar, Jan. 1, 1752.

6[3] Navigation Act of 1651 enforced, 1660.

NOTES

Note 1.—Purpose of ths Massachusetts Settlements. The Pilgrims who settled at Plymouth came to America for the purpose of preserving their families and securing for themselves religious liberty. The Puritans who settled Massachusetts Bay were seeking both civil and religious liberty for themselves. It would seem, judging from the early colonial experiences, that the people of Massachusetts did not come here for the purpose of establishing religious liberty, but rather to secure this blessing for themselves to the exclusion of all others.

Note 2.—Character of the Colonists. The Pilgrims and Puritans were of an honest, hard-working class, accustomed to hardships, very conscientious, and extremely religious.

Note 3.—The Puritans and the Separatists. In England under Henry VIII a new church was formed which was compelled to acknowledge the king instead of the pope as supreme head. When James I. came to the throne, he found the following religions prominent: Catholic, Episcopal (Church of England), Puritan, and Separatist (Independent).

The Puritans were still members of the established church who believed the Protestant reformation to be incomplete and were working as they said, to "purify" English worship from "popish dregs." They opposed the "wearing the surplice, making the sign of the cross in baptism, and using the ring in the marriage service."

The Separatists were Puritans but went a step further. They opposed the interference of the State in religious matters and believed that every congregation should be independent of all other churches and be governed only by Christ and God. They saw no hope of reforming the Church of England by remain-

ing in it, and therefore separated, which act gave them their name.

Some of these Separatists who had settled in the small town of Scrooby, England, fled from the persecution and settled in Holland, the only country in Europe granting religious liberty to all classes. Being dissatisfied with their surroundings in Amsterdam, they with their pastors moved to Leyden. Here they met hardships which reduced them to poverty. "From farming, to which they were used, they had to turn to mechanical labor. Not only they but their children must work, barely to live, and thus were the children being robbed of the strength which would make them vigorous men and women." It worried the parents to see their children growing up into Dutch habits and marrying into Dutch families. They decided to come to America, believing their condition could be no worse here than where they were, and their children would grow up to be English and not Dutch. These wanderings gave them the name of "Pilgrims."

Note 4.—Persecution and Banishment of Quakers. The general court of Massachusetts, hearing of the disturbance in England caused by Quakers, ordered (1656) that a day of fasting and prayer be kept for fear the teachings of the English Quakers should come to their colony. It was not long before they realized their fears. The same year two Quaker women arrived at Boston. They were arrested, thrown into prison, and sent to the West Indies, and their books burned. A severe law was at once enacted imposing a fine of 100 pounds sterling on the master of any vessel who should bring to the colony one of the "cursed sect of heretics . . . . commonly called Quakers," and ordered that every Quaker who should enter the colony should be severely flogged

and placed in close confinement until he could be sent away. But the Quakers were persistent and often when sent away would return. The General Court finally resolved "to present the end of the sword toward the Quakers," and in 1658 an act was passed imposing the death-penalty upon banished Quakers who should return. Under this act, four Quakers—three men and one woman—were executed. With Margaret Brewster who (1677) was whipped through the streets of Boston, the Quaker persecution ceased. "Quaker persistence and Quaker non-resistance had fairly carried the day."

Note 5.—Missionary Work among the Indians. Most of the Puritans regarded the Indians as heathen. Some treated them harshly and wished them out of the way; but John Eliot with a small company of followers regarded them as the "lost tribes of Israel," and sought to civilize and Christianize them. Eliot devoted his life to this noble work, and accomplished a great deal of good. He made friends among many tribes and formed settlements of "praying Indians", as those who professed conversion were called. Most of these settlements aided the English in King Philip's War. Eliot translated the Bible into the Indian language and printed it (1660) at Cambridge on the first printing plant set up in America. He also translated other books, and sermons; and because of his noble work he is called "The Apostle to the Indians," and was one of the editors of the New England Hymn Book.

Note 6.—Education. An impulse in favor of education was sweeping over England during the colonial period and its influence was felt in America. Many of the wealthy parents either employed private tutors for their children or sent them to Europe for education. Two very strong tendencies in directions

quite opposite were early seen working among the Puritans—one toward narrow views and self-centered purposes; and the other toward breadth of mind and liberality toward others. Evidence of the first is seen in their efforts to make their own religious views the absolute law of the state by granting to none, save members of their church, the right to vote on questions of public interest, and by their banishing from the colony those who persisted in teaching other religions.

We have evidence of the second in the establishment of the Free Latin School of Boston (1635), the oldest educational institution established in the English Colonies. Two of America's noble patriots, Benjamin Franklin and Samuel Adams, were once students in this school. In 1636, the General Court voted 400 pounds sterling for the founding of Harvard College. Two years later John Harvard left to the school his valuable library and 750 pounds sterling. The Court ordered that the school be named in honor of its benefactor.

In 1647, the General Court passed the ordinance since known as the "Great Charter of Free Education." The ordinance provided, in order "that learning may not be buried in the grave of our fathers . . . . the Lord assisting our endeavors, it is therefore ordered that every township in this jurisdiction, of fifty householders, shall then forthwith appoint one within their town to teach all such children as shall report to him, to read and write." It further provided that every town of one hundred families or over should support a grammar school to prepare young men for Harvard College. Through the influence of these acts, free schools were opened (1649) to all who wished to attend. The state of Massachusetts in 1789 passed a law compelling attendance at school.

Such liberal provisions for the education of the youth together with the influence of life in a new country and the need of union for defence against the Indians so overpowered the narrow tendencies already mentioned that in time Massachusetts became one of the foremost defenders of both religious and political freedom in this country.

Note 7.—Modified Charter. In 1691 King William, who had just come to the throne of England, granted a new charter to Massachusetts which annexed Plymouth and Maine to the colony, and provided (1) that the governor should be elected by the king; (2) that a colonial assembly should be elected by the property holders; (3) that, subject to the governor's approval, a council should be chosen by the assembly; (4) that these two houses should constitute the legislature, but all laws passed by them should be approved by the governor and the king; (5) that all power of taxation rested with the assembly; (6) courts of justice were created by the legislature but the governor appointed the judges; (7) freedom of worship granted to all but Catholics.

Note 8.—New England Town Meeting. The physical features of New England are quite different from those of Virginia and other southern colonies. This difference had its influence in the form of government in the two sections. In New England the valleys are mostly narrow and not suited to agricultural purposes. The rivers are short and very rapid and furnish good water power; the hill and mountain sides were covered with a dense growth of timber suitable for lumber and ship-building. For these reasons the New Englanders lived in small towns and engaged in manufacturing. These conditions made it possible for each community to hold town meetings in which all questions of local interest were dis-

cussed, and understood by all. Thus the spirit of pure democracy was fostered.

One author says, "Thomas Jefferson of Virginia lamented that his colony did not do the same. He said that New England town meetings had proved themselves the wisest invention ever devised by the wit of man for the perfect exercise of self government." But in Virginia the conditions differ. The rivers are not rapid and do not furnish water-power, and are better suited to navigation. The broad valleys and large plantations encouraged a wider distribution of the people which made the New England system of town meetings impractical for general government. It was in Virginia, however, that the representative system of government early took root as seen in the House of Burgesses.

3[1] New York—settlement.
- 1[2] When—1623. (Trading station 1614).
- 2[2] Where—New Amsterdam and Fort Orange —now Albany.
- 3[2] Why—to establish a constituency to hold the land and make permanent their trading stations.
- 4[2] Character of colonists—the first settlers were of the poor or of the middle class under the leadership of a wealthy person to whom a grant of land was made. Later, New York became quite cosmopolitan and 18 different languages were spoken in the colony.
- 5[2] Events having an influence upon Protestant and Republican principles.
  - 1[3] Religious matters.
    - 1[4] Principal religions.
      - 1[5] Dutch Reformed.
      - 2[5] English Episcopal.

2^4 Religious Freedom.—Note 1.
1^5 Persecution of Quakers.
2^5 Exclusion of Catholics.
2^3 Educational matters.
1^4 A church school established 1633 in New Amsterdam.—Note 2.
2^4 King's College (Columbia) founded 1754.
3^3 Forms of government.
1^4 Dutch Proprietary, 1623–1664.—Note 3.
1^5 Four Dutch governors—Peter Minuet, Wouter Van Twiller, William Kieft, and Peter Stuyvesant.
2^4 English Proprietary.
3^4 English Royal Province, 1685–1776.
4^3 Arrival of the Walloons (French Protestants) 1623.
5^3 Arrival of the Patroons, 1629.
6^3 Indian troubles, 1640–1645.
7^3 Jacob Leisler, two-years' governorship, 1689–1691.—Note 4.
8^3 Freedom of the press established, 1734.
6^2 Events of interest unclassified.
1^3 Negro Plot.
1^4 Cause—some mysterious fires and house-robberies by slaves.
2^4 Results—4 white persons hanged, 11 negroes burned, 18 negroes hanged, and 50 sold to the West Indies. Later verdict, "not guilty; no plot."

NOTES

Note 1—Religious Freedom. Since the purpose of founding the New York colony was to establish a commercial constituency in America, no one was ex-

cluded from the colony during its early history on account of nationality or religion, but the Dutch governors believed in making the Dutch Reformed Church the legal religion of the Colony. Peter Stuyvesant, the last of the four Dutch governors, issued an order (1656) to the effect that anyone preaching without a license should be fined 100 pounds sterling and each hearer a fine of 25 pounds sterling.

In 1657 when the first Quaker made his appearance in the colony, he was flogged and imprisoned in a dungeon until sent from the colony. Later the governor forbade the public exercise of any religion save that of the Dutch Reformed Church "in houses, barns, woods, ships, or fields." Stuyvesant was severely rebuked by the proprietors of the West India Company for his severity and all perescution ceased.

In 1665 a code of laws was prepared for the colony known as "Duke's Laws," in which perfect religious freedom was guaranteed to all Christians.

Note 2.—Church School. One of the conditions by which the Patroons were to hold their lands was that they should support on each estate a school teacher and a minister. The school established in 1633 at New Amsterdam "still flourishes under the name of the 'School of the Collegiate Reformed Church' and is the oldest institution of learning in the United States."

Note 3.—Dutch Proprietary Government. The Dutch East India Company which sent Henry Hudson in search of a short route to India gave little regard to the results of his explorations: but other merchants in Amsterdam saw an opportunity to build up a fur trade with the Indians. They obtained permission to establish trading posts and operate in the region of the Hudson River. They estab-

lished forts and stations on Manhattan Island and on the Hudson near the present site of Albany. In 1621 the Dutch West India Company was created and all the rights and privileges of the former company transferred to it. The stockholders of this company in order to encourage home-building rather than fur-trading among the settlers adopted what is known as the patroon system. Each stockholder who should establish a colony of fifty persons above the age of fifteen was given full title to an estate having sixteen miles water frontage on one side or eight miles if on both sides of one of the navigable streams of the company's grant in America. They could extend their estate as far inland as they desired. These Patroons, as the land-holders were called, were bound by the company to pay the transportation from Holland, to stock their farms on his estate for them with horses, cattle, and such agricultural implements as might be necessary, for the use of which he might charge a small rent but no taxes. He was also to support a schoolmaster and a minister. One the other hand the colonists agreed to cultivate the patroon's land for ten years during which time they were not to leave without permission. They were to give the patroon the first opportunity to buy any produce they might have for sale. They agreed to grind their grain on his mill and pay for the grinding, and could not hunt or fish without his permission. In short, each patroon had absolute authority over his estate and those residing upon it. This Patroon system led to the "anti-rent" trouble of 1844.

Note 4.—Governorship of Jacob Leisler. Because Governor Nicholas of New York had not received official notice that William of Orange had been made king of England, he refused to believe the report

when it was borne to him (1689) and still declared his allegiance to James II. Captain Jacob Leisler of the New York Militia, knowing the hatred of the Dutch toward the Catholics, and sharing with the colonists in this feeling, openly denounced Governor Nicholas as a Papist. When the report came soon after this that a French fleet was coming into the harbor, the city was thrown into consternation. As no efforts were made to strengthen the defense against them, Captain Leisler with a band of citizens seized the fort, declaring that he would hold it until King William should send a Protestant governor to the colony. Nicholas seeing that the common people had turned against him soon set sail for England, and Leisler was made governor of the colony by an assembly of colonists. Although opposed by most of the property holders, he held the position for nearly two years, 1689–1691, and ruled with almost absolute authority. Because he refused to surrender the fort to the king's authorized agent before the new governor came, he was tried for treason and hanged as a traitor.

4[1] New Hampshire—settlement.
- 1[2] When—1623.
- 2[2] Where—at Dover and at Portsmouth.
- 3[2] Why—The first settlements were only fishing hamlets. Later, dissenters from the Massachusetts colony formed settlements for the purpose of greater civil and religious liberty.
- 4[2] Character of colonists—generally poor, but firm in religious convictions.
- 5[2] Events having an influence upon Protestant and Republican principles.
  - 1[3] Religious matters.
    - 1[4] Principal religion, Episcopal.—Note 1.

2[3] Educational matters.
1[4] Dartmouth College founded 1769 Daniel Webster was a graduate of this college.
3[3] Forms of government.—Note 2.
1[4] Proprietary, 1623–1641.
2[4] Under Massachusetts rule, 1641–1580.
3[4] Royal Province, 1680–1690.
4[4] Three times united with and as many times separated from Massachusetts, 1690–1741.
5[4] Royal Province, 1741–1746.
4[3] Indian depredations. Because of the exposed position of these settlements, they suffered much from the Indians.
6[2] Events of interest unclassified.
1[3] Gorges and Mason dissolve partnership, 1629.
2[3] Culture of flax and manufacture of linen, 1720.

NOTES

Note 1.—Principal Religion. Ferdinando Gorges and John Mason were deadly enemies of Massachusetts, as they held to the Church of England. They hated the whole Puritan movement and opposed the Reformed Party in Parliament. They encouraged members of the Church of England and dissenters from Massachusetts to form settlements in their territory. It was because of differences in religion that the New Hampshire settlements were denied protection under the New England Confederacy of 1643. While New Hampshire was under the protection of Massachusetts, many Puritans formed settlements along the Merrimac River.

Note 2.—Forms of Government. By the terms of

a charter granted to the Massachusetts Bay Colony (1629), the northern boundary of that colony was defined as lying three miles north of the Merrimac and extending east and west from the Atlantic to the Pacific. It would seem that the geography of America was not well understood by the English Court for this grant as interpreted by Massachusetts conflicted with the grant to Gorges and Mason. Massachusetts claimed the territory as far north as three miles north of the source of the Merrimac, and east from this point to the ocean. Such blunders in granting of charters led to great confusion and trouble in the colonies.

5[1] Connecticut—settlement.
- 1[2] When—1633, 1636, 1638.
- 2[2] Where—Hartford, Windsor, Wethersfield, Saybrook, New Haven.
- 3[2] Why—acquisition of territory and greater civil and religious liberty.—Note 1.
- 4[2] Character of colonists—energetic, hard-working, well-to-do, willing to endure hardships. The Connecticut settlements were made by broad, liberal-minded Puritans from Massachusetts. The New Haven and neighboring settlements were of devout Puritans from England, of the strictest type.
- 5[2] Events having an influence upon Protestant and Republican principles.
  - 1[3] Religious matters.
    - 1[4] Principal religion.
      - 1[5] Northern settlements—progressive Puritans.
      - 2[5] Southern settlements—conservative Puritans.
    - 2[4] Religious liberty granted from the first in Connecticut.

3[4] Convention held in barn, 1639.
1[5] Mosaic law adopted as the law of the colony.
2[3] Educational matters.
1[4] Received attention very early.
2[4] The "Fundamental Orders" (1639) made provision for a free school.
3[4] A system of free schools established throughout the colony, 1650.
4[4] Yale College founded, 1701.
3[3] Forms of government.—Note 2.
1[4] Saybrook colony was Proprietary until 1644.
2[4] Connecticut and New Haven each voluntary association until 1665.
3[4] All united under charter, 1665 to 1687.
4[4] Royal, during Andros' governorship in New England, 1687 to 1689.
5[4] Charter, 1689–1776.
4[3] Pequot War, 1637.
1[4] Influence of Roger Williams.
2[4] Result.
5[3] Connecticut joins the New England Confederacy, 1643.
6[3] Protection given to fugitive "Regicides", 1661.
1[4] Names of "Regicides"—Goffe and Whalley.
2[4] Davenport's sermon.
7[3] Andros' attempts to get the charter, 1687.
6[2] Events of interest unclassified.

NOTES

Note 1.—Purpose of Settlement. The first Hartford settlement was a Dutch trading-post and fort erected to hold the territory for New Netherlands

and to carry on fur trade with the Indians.

The reasons for the migration from Massachusetts to Connecticut may be briefly summed up as follows:

1. In 1535 about 3,000 settlers came to Massachusetts and complaints began to be made that the narrow coast did not afford enough good lands to support the colonists, a large part of whom were stockraisers.

2. The fertile valley of the Connecticut offered to them better industrial advantages and abundant room for all.

3. Many, even of the Puritans, were becoming dissatisfied with the stringent religious laws of Massachusetts and were beginning to adopt the idea of a separation of church and state.

Note 2.—Forms of Government. Although Thomas Hooker was a Strict Puritan in religious matters, he held to principles of government much more liberal than those for which Massachusetts stood. He thought that matters of business which concerned all should be regulated by a council chosen by all. These views were not so extreme as those taught by Roger Williams, or as those held by Governor Winthrop of Massachusetts. In 1639 he called a convention at Hartford for the purpose of adopting a form of government for the settlements of Hartford, Windsor, and Wethersfield. The convention drew up and adopted the "Fundamental Orders", a brief statement of the fundamental principles of their government. It provided that it could be altered or the provisions repealed by the General Council, which was a representative assembly consisting at first of four deputies from each town, chosen by the people. The "Orders" did not recognize either the government of Massachusetts or the king of England. The highest authority which it did recognize was the people themselves. No religious test was required of either citi-

zens or officers except of the governor, who must be a Puritan.

The "Fundamental Orders" are often spoken of as "the first written constitution ever drawn up by a people for the govornment of themselves." Of that first Hartford Convention, Alexander Johnston says, "It is on the banks of the Connecticut, under the mighty preaching of Thomas Hooker, and in the constitution to which he gave life if not form, that we draw the first breath of that atmosphere which is now so familiar to us. The birthplace of American democracy is Hartford."

The colony under the leadership of John Davenport, located at New Haven, adopted principles of government differering widely from those already noticed in Connecticut. In 1639 the New Haven settlers met in a large barn, and, under the influence of their leader, adopted a code of laws by which they attempted to apply the laws of Moses in conducting all the affairs of the colony. Trial by jury was denied because it was not found in the Mosaic law. They declared "That the words of God shall be the onely rule to be attended unto in ordering the affayres of government in this plantation."

In 1662 John Winthrop jr., son of the governor of Massachusetts, went to England and secured a charter for Connecticut. By his eloquence and pleasing address he was able to secure the most liberal charter held by the American colonies. By the terms of this charter, the New Haven colony and her neighbors were annexed to Connecticut. This act displeased the colonists in New Haven very much and they sent earnest protests to the king. But the previous year (1661) the English regicides had fled to New Haven and were successfully secreted by the colony from the officer who came to arrest them and

take them back to England, and for this reason the king turned a deaf ear to all the protests from New Haven. One reason why New Haven objected to uniting under the charter was because of the liberal principles of government and religion which it supported.

6[1] Maryland—settlement.
- 1[2] When—1634.
- 2[2] Where—St. Mary's.
- 3[2] Why—asylum for persecuted English Catholics.
- 4[2] Character of colonists—a few wealthy Catholics with a large number of working men, many of whom were Protestants.
- 5[2] Events having an influence upon Protestant and Republican principles.
  - 1[3] Religious matters.
    - 1[4] Principal religion.
      - 1[5] At first Catholics in majority.
      - 2[5] Later, Protestants in majority, Puritans and Episcopalians.
    - 2[4] Toleration Act, 1649.
      - 1[5] All forms of Christian religion protected by law except Quakers and Unitarians.
    - 3[4] Civil war, 1655–1692.—Note 1.
      - 1[5] Cause.
      - 2[5] Events.
      - 3[5] Results.
    - 4[4] Banishment of Quakers.
  - 2[3] Educational matters.
    - 1[4] No special attention given to education before the Revolution.
    - 2[4] Washington College established, 1782.
  - 3[3] Forms of government.—Note 2.
    - 1[4] Proprietary, 1634–1691.

2[4] Royal Province, 1691–1715.
3[4] Proprietary, 1715–1776.
4[3] Clayborne's Rebellion, 1635, 1645. — Note 3.
1[4] Cause.
2[4] Events.
3[4] Results.
5[3] Commission appointed to reorganize government of colony.
6[2] Events of interest unclassified.
1[3] Boundary disputes.
1[4] Mason and Dixon Line, 1763–1767.
2[4] Cultivation of tobacco and wheat.

NOTES

Note 1.—Civil War. Cause—influence of Civil War in England. The Toleration Act by Baltimore induced many Protestants to settle in Maryland. They gained control of the Legislative Asssembly and, because of both Catholics and Protestants' taking sides with their respective parties in England, manifested a hostile spirit toward the Catholics. When laws were passed depriving the Catholics of civil rights, war followed.

Events—several battles fought. Three Catholic leaders were tried and executed. Baltimore reinstated when the Stewarts were restored to power in England. In 1689 war again opened between the Catholics and the Protestants. The Catholics were defeated and the Protestants held the government two years.

Results—Maryland become Royal Province, 1691. Baltimore's privileges restored to his heirs, 1715.

Note 2.—Forms of Government. By the terms of the charter granted to Lord Baltimore, he was given almost absolute authority over his colony. He had

the right to coin money, appoint judges, and to regulate all the affairs of the colony. One restriction was placed upon his authority in that the laws of the colony should be made "by and with the advice, assent, and approbation of the free men of said province, or their delegates or deputies."

The charter denied the right of the English government to lay taxes upon the colonists within the province, and no taxes could be collected until voted by the colonial legislature. The colonists were to enjoy all the rights of Englishmen in the mother country and Baltimore was to do nothing contrary to the wishes of the king.

Note 3.—Clayborne's Rebellion. Clayborne held, by grant from the king, a small settlement and trading station on Kent Island. Lord Baltimore's grant conflicted with this. Clayborne refused to surrender his station. War followed. The dispute was carried to England for settlement and decided in favor of Baltimore. Clayborne took advantage of the trouble between Catholics and Protestants. He was finally defeated by the Catholics and lost all claim to the colony.

7[1] Rhode Island—settlement.

1[2] When—1635, 1638, 1639.

2[2] Where—Providence, Portsmouth, Newport.

3[2] Why—Persecution of dissenters in Massachusets drove many from that colony. Roger Williams and other Baptists founded Providence as a refuge for the oppressed of all classes. Mrs. Anne Hutchinson and her followers founded Portsmouth and Newport for the same purpose.

4[2] Character of the colonists—honest, conscientious, broad-minded, hard-working, and liberty-loving, willing to grant to others

the privileges they asked for themselves. Rhode Island is called the "Cradle of Liberty of Conscience."

5[2] Events having an influence on Protestant and Republican principles.

1[3] Religious matters—Note 1.

1[4] Principal religions.

1[5] At first Baptist.

2[5] Later, largely Quakers.

2[4] Perfect religious freedom to all, whether Protestants, Catholics, Jews, or unbelievers, maintained from the first.

3[4] First Baptist Church in America organized 1639 by Roger Williams, Ezekiel Holliman and ten others.

2[3] Educational matters.

1[4] Education received attention very early.

2[4] Brown University, 1764. Although a Baptist school, the charter required that Quakers, Episcopalians and Congregationalists be represented in the board of trustees.

3[3] Forms of government.—Note 2.

1[4] Voluntary Association, 1636–1644.

2[4] Charter, 1644–1686.

3[4] Royal Province under Governor Andros, 1687–1689.

4[4] Charter, 1689–1776, and slightly modified still retained as the constitution for the state until Dorr's Rebellion, 1842.

4[3] Convention of 1641.

1[4] Duration—three days.

2[4] Measures adopted.

1[5] A democratic form of government.
2[5] Religious liberty guaranteed.
3[5] Name—"The Plantation of Phode Island."

6[2] Events of interest unclassified.
1[3] The Island of Rhodes purchased from the Indians for 40 fathoms of white beads, worth $2.50 per fathom, 1638.

NOTES

Note 1.—Religious Matters. Roger Williams was banished from Massachusetts because of his teaching doctrines believed by the Puritans to be dangerous to their commonwealth. The principal teachings to which objection was made were:—

1. That the king had no right to make grants giving away the Indian lands but that the lands should be purchased from the Indians.

2. He advocated the separation of church and state.

3. He denounced the Puritans' laws compelling church attendance and Sabbath observance.

4. He declared that the people should not be taxed to support the church.

Note 2.—Forms of Government. Rhode Island was settled without authority from the king, therefore the government was in the hands of the settlers, and is known as Voluntary Association. In 1643 Roger Williams went to England and secured a charter uniting the various settlements around Narragansett Bay under the name of "Rhode Island and Providence Plantations." This charter gave no grant of lands but granted the colonists full power to rule themselves under such form of government as they might choose, provided they enacted no laws contrary to the laws of England. In 1663, John Clarke

went to England and obtained a second charter, which confirmed all the privileges of the first and expressly declared that no one shonld be "in any wise molested . . . . for any differences of opinion in matters of religion." When (1686) Governor Andros, with authority from the king, came to take their charter and to dissolve their government, he failed to get the charter. The colony yielded partial submission to Andros but after he was overthrown they turned to their charter form of government. So broad and liberal were the provisions of the charter that it virtually made Rhode Island a little republic. The settlers were so well pleased with it that they made it (1776) the constitution of their state until 1842, the only change being made in it was to strike out the clause requiring allegiance to the king and to put in its place one requiring allegiance to the state.

Providence is called the "birthplace of complete religious and political liberty in the United States."

In working out their form of government the right to vote was first restricted to heads of families and later to property holders who had resided in the colony for some time.

For a time in the later history of the colony, Catholics were not allowed to vote, though the exercise of their religion was not interfered with.

Williams early met a spirit of anarchy in the colony. Men arose who taught that there should be no laws and no officers if perfect liberty was to be enjoyed, but he silenced such teaching and showed where "liberty ceased to be a virtue and became a danger." He wrote, "a true picture of a commonwealth is a ship at sea, with many hundred souls . . . . . whose weal and woe is common." He went on to explain that these passengers might be Jews, Turks, Protestants, or Catholics, but that none

should be required to come to the ship's prayers or be kept from their own; but that it is the captain's duty to collect fares, to direct the work of the seamen, and to keep the ship in its course.

8[1] Delaware—settlement.
  1[2] When—1638.
  2[2] Where—Christiana (now Wilmington).
  3[2] Why—to establish homes and trading posts and to build up a New Sweden in America.
  4[2] Character of colonists—ambitious and sturdy.
  5[2] Events having an influence upon Protestant and Republican principles.
    1[3] Religious matters.
      1[4] Principal religion.
        1[5] After 1681, Quakers.
        2[5] Full liberty granted to all except atheists.
    2[3] Educational matters.
      1[4] Received no special recognition by law before the Revolution.
    3[3] Forms of government.—Note.
      1[4] Under Swedish rule—no form mentioned, 1638–1655.
      2[4] Under Duke of York, 1655–1682.
      3[4] Under Pennsylvania, 1682–1703.
      4[4] Under the same governor as Pennsylvania, but with a separate legislature, 1703–1776.
    4[3] Slavery prohibited by the Swedes, but introduced under Dutch rule.
  6[2] Events of interest unclassified.

NOTE

Forms of Government. In 1638 the Swedes built a fort and trading station on the present site of Wil-

mington and named it Christiana. Although the Dutch claimed the territory, they made no opposition to the Swedish settlements until after the nations of Europe promised to uphold the kingdom of Holland at the close of the "Thirty Years War." In 1655 armed forces under Peter Stuyvesant, governor of New York, forced the Swedes to surrender. This ended the Swedish rule in America. The Dutch promised not to interfere with the forms of worship practiced by the Swedes.

When the English took possession of New Netherlands, 1694, Deleware came under the possession of the Duke of York, who sold it to William Penn, (1682) in order to give him a water passage to the sea. In 1701 the "three lower counties on the Delaware," as this territory was called, asked for a separate government. Two years later, Penn granted them a charter allowing them to establish their own legislature. The new charter granted freedom of worship to all but atheists and provided no one should be taxed to support a religion to which he conscientiously objected. It also made eligible to civil office all persons who professed faith in Jesus Christ, and would take the oath of allegiance to the king and to the proprietor.

9 & 10^{1} Carolina.

1^{2} Grant of land.—Note 1.

1^{3} Provisions of.

2^{2} Settlements.

3^{2} Government.—Note 2.

1^{3} Grand Model.

1^{4} Its origin.

2^{4} Plan of government.

3^{4} Religious freedom.

4^{4} Success or failure. Why?

4^{2} Division of territory, 1729. Why?

9[1] North Carolina—settlement.
  1[2] When—1663. Trading post established by Virginia settlers in 1651.
  2[2] Where—near Albemarle Sound.
  3[2] Why—to establish homes, obtain wealth, and hold territory for English.
  4[2] Character of the colonists—honest, conscientious, and liberty loving.—Note 3.
  5[2] Events having an influence upon Protestant and Republican principles.
    1[3] Religious matters.
      1[4] Principal religions—varied and tolerant.
      2[4] Precedence given to Church of England.
    2[3] Educational matters.
      1[4] University of North Carolina, 1789.
    3[3] Forms of government.
      1[4] Proprietary, 1663–1729.
      2[4] Royal Province, 1729–1776.
    4[3] Tuscarora Indian war, 1711–1713.
      1[4] One hundred thirty persons killed.
      2[4] The Indians are defeated and then joined the Iroquois, making the sixth nation in the Iroquois league.
  6[2] Events of interest unclassified.
    1[3] Manufacture of pitch, tar, turpentine, and resin.

10[1] South Carolina—settlement.
  1[2] When—1670.
  2[2] Where—Charleston.
  3[2] Why—for wealth, homes, and territory.
  4[2] Character of colonists—polyglott colony. Settlers were of the middle classes, steady and hard working.—Note 4.
  5[2] Events having an influence on Protestant

and Republican principles.

1[3] Religious affairs.

1[4] Principal religions—many but tolerant.

2[3] Educational matters.

1[4] Private tutors employed by wealthy planters, and children sent to England for college education.

3[3] Forms of government.

1[4] Proprietary with North Carolina until 1729.

2[4] Royal Province, 1729—1776.

4[3] War with Spaniards at St. Augustine, 1702.

5[3] Spaniards and French attack Charleston, 1706.

6[3] Yamassees Indian War, 1715.

6[2] Events of interest unclassified.

1[3] Cultivation of rice, 1694; influence upon slavery.

2[3] Cultivation of indigo, 1742; influence.

NOTES

Note 1.—The Grant of Land. In 1662, two years after Charles II ascended the throne of England, Lord Clarenden and seven associates obtained a grant of land in America, south of Virginia. It included the coast from Albemarle Sound to the St. John's River. It thus over-lapped Virginia's claim one-half degree and extended southward into territory claimed by Spain about seventy miles south of St. Augustine. Of course the Spanish resisted this encroachment upon their territory and it soon led to trouble between the southern English settlements and the Spanish in and about St. Augustine. The grant gave the proprietors power to make all laws

necessary for the colony, but provided that their laws should be approved by the majority of the free-holders. They could grant religious liberty just as far as they "saw fit and reasonable."

Note 2.—Government under the Proprietors—The Grand Model. In order to secure the best government possible the proprietors employed an English philosopher, John Locke, to draw up a scheme of government for them. The scheme was an elaborate one and is known as the Grand Model. It provided that all laws were to be made by a Parliament consisting of the "Proprietors (or their deputies), together with the nobility and a small portion of the untitled landholders." But the Proprietors had the power of veto over any laws enacted by this Parliament. It seems to have been their intention to place as little power as possible in the hands of the common people.

Freedom of worship was granted to all persons who acknowledged that there is a God, and did not oppose the taking of oaths. The protection of the law was not extended to persons above seventeen who were not members of some church or religious society. Only the Church of England could receive support from public taxation.

The Proprietors tried for many years to make a success of their "Model" government. But the independent spirit which grew up in the northern settlements caused them so much trouble that, in 1720, Carolina was made a royal province and, in 1829, the proprietors sold all their interests to the crown, who divided it into two provinces, North Carolina and South Carolina.

Note 3.—Character of the Colonists—North Carolina. When the first colonists came from Europe they found the many hunters and trappers called

"poor whites" who had come from Virginia and settled at various places in the northern part of the territory. They also found a settlement of Quakers who had been driven from Virginia in 1653.

Note 4.—Character of the Colonists—South Carolina. Among the immigrants to Charlesten and vicinity were many Huguenots (French Protestants) who fled from persecution in France. They represented a noble, educated, conscientious class of citizens, who added strength to the colony. From them sprang Henry Laurens and Francis Marion of Revolutionary fame. Peter Faneuil, Paul Revere, and John Jay are of Huguenot descent but from other colonies.

11[1] New Jersey—settlement.
- 1[2] When—1655 (A trading post formed by the Dutch at Bergen in 1617.)
- 2[2] Where—Elizabethtown.
- 3[2] Why—for homes, greater liberties, territory and wealth.
- 4[2] Character of colonists—thrifty and liberty loving.
- 5[2] Events having an influence upon Protestant and Republican principles.
  - 1[3] Religious affairs.
    - 1[4] Principal religions.
      - 1[5] Quakers.
      - 2[5] Presbyterian.
    - 2[4] Proprietors publish the "Concession," 1677.
      - 1[5] Men of all races and religions declared equal before the law.
      - 2[5] New Jersey becomes a home for the oppressed.
  - 2[3] Educational matters.
    - 1[4] Public schools established in 1695.

2[4] Princeton college founded in 1746.

3[3] Forms of government.—Note.

1[4] Proprietary, 1665—1689.

1[5] Liberal constitution.

2[4] No settled form, 1689—1702.

3[4] United with New York under one governor but with separate legislative assembly, 1702—1738.

4[4] Separated from New York with separate governor, 1738—1776.

5[4] First general assembly of New Jersey, 1681.

1[5] Doctrine of the "Concession" reaffirmed.

4[3] Quakers purchase West Jersey, 1675.

5[3] Penn and eleven other Quakers purchased East Jersey, 1682.

6[2] Events of interest unclassified.

1[3] Newark and Middletown founded, 1666.

2[3] New Jersey divided into East and West Jersey, 1676.

3[3] Trouble over the land titles.

NOTE

Forms of Government. The proprietors granted their new colony a liberal constitution. It provided for a governor, a council, and a popular legislative assembly. All taxes were to be levied by the representatives of the people. Freedom of conscience was guaranteed to every citizen. The proprietors reserved the right to appoint a governor and colonial judges and to receive a small rent of one-half penny per acre.

12[1] Pennsylvania—settlement.

1[2] When—1681.

2[2] Where—Chester, 1681; Philadelphia, 1682.

3[2] Why—asylum for persecuted Quakers.
4[2] Character of the colonists—steady, industrious, simple in habits.
5[2] Events having an influence upon Protestant and Republican principles.
1[3] Religious matters.
1[4] Principal religion—Friends or Quakers.
2[4] The "Great Law", 1682.—Note 1.
1[5] Freedom and protection guaranteed to all bodies of the Christian religion.
2[3] Educational matters.
1[4] Industrial education received first attention. The laws required that all children should learn some useful trade.
2[4] A system of schools was established.
3[4] Publication of Poor Richard's Almanac commenced, 1732.
4[4] University of Pennsylvania founded, 1749.
3[3] Forms of government. (Pennsylvania remained under Penn's heirs until the Revolution.)
1[4] Provisions of the grant given to Penn. —Note 2.
2[4] Proprietary, 1681–1692.
3[4] Under the Royal Governor of New York two years, 1692–1694.
4[4] Proprietary, 1694–1776.
4[3] Relations with Delaware.
6[2] Events unclassified.
1[3] Penn's treaty with the Indians.
2[3] Mason and Dixon Line, 1663–1667. Why so called?

3[3] Tax troubles.
4[3] Second printing press in the English colonies set up at Philadelphia, 1686.
5[3] Protests against slavery.
6[3] Discovery of iron, 1720.
7[3] Discovery of anthracite coal, 1791.

NOTES

Note 1.—"The Great Law." Penn called a general assembly or convention of the people to adopt a general form of government. They met at Chester, Dec. 4–7, 1682, and enacted "The Great Law", which provided that "God" might "have his due, Caesar his due, and the people their due." Of the many provisions of "The Great Law" the following are most important:—

1. The right to vote for member of the legislative assembly was restricted to men of good character who "profess and declare they believe in Jesus Christ," and were tax payers.

2. Only those who professed Christianity could hold office or sit in the Legislature. Later, Catholics were denied the privilege of voting or holding office.

3. Every colonist, if arrested, might demand a trial by jury; Indians when arrested could have six members on the jury from their own race. Wilful murder only was punished by death. The prisons were more than places of confinement; they were schools of industry and reform.

4. The laws of the colony were to be printed and taught to all children.

5. "No persons" who should confess "Almighty God to be the Creator, upholder, and ruler of the world" and live peaceably should "in any wise be molested" or "compelled to frequent or maintain

any religious worship," but all persons were required to respect Sunday as the Sabbath.

Note 2.—Provisions of Penn's Charter. The charter by which Penn received his grant of land contained the following specifications:—

1. His territory as defined was to include three degrees of latitude west of Delaware, and he was made the "true and absolute proprietor" of Pennsylvania.

2. The colony has the right to govern itself in harmony with English law.

3. To the Church of England was secured the right to form settlements within Pennsylvania, but no restrictions were to be imposed upon other forms of Christian worship.

4. The proprietor had full power to establish sush systems of courts and appoint such changes as the best interests of the colony might require.

5. England reserved the right to collect duties and to tax the colony.

13[1] Georgia—settlement.

1[2] When—1732.

2[2] Where—Savannah. (Today Savannah is the largest cotton exporting port in the United States.)

3[2] Why—as a refuge for the poor, for the insolvent debtors and the persecuted of all classes of Europe, except Catholics, and a defense for the Carolinas against the Spaniards of Florida.

4[2] Character of the colonists.—Note 1.

5[2] Events having an influence upon Protestant and Republican principles.

1[3] Religious matters.

1[4] Religious freedom to all except Catholics.

2[4] One hundred Moravians arrived in 1736.

3[4] Arrival of John and Charles Wesley, the founders of Methodism, 1735.

1[5] John Wesley as a missionary to Indians.

2[5] Chas. Wesley came as Oglethorpe's private secretary.

3[5] Church of England established by law, 1758.

2[3] Educational matters.

1[4] No system of public schools established; instruction given in the homes.

3[3] Forms of government.

1[4] Proprietary allowed by charter, 1732–1752.

2[4] Royal Province with a representative Assembly, 1752–1776.

4[3] Regulations.—Note 2.

5[3] War of 1740–1742.

1[4] Cause.—Note 3.

2[4] Invasion of Florida, 1741.

1[5] Two fortified towns taken.

2[5] St. Augustine besieged but not taken.

1[6] Sickness and defeat ended the siege.

3[5] Spaniards invade Georgia, 1747.

1[6] A Spanish fleet of 30 vessels and 500 men set out to capture Savannah.

2[6] Battle of Bloody Marsh on St. Simons Island.

1[7] Oglethorpe won the victory, with less than 1000 men.

3[1] Result.
1[5] The English established their right to Georgia and put an end to trouble with the Spanish in Florida.

6[2] Events of interest unclassified.
1[3] Introduction of silk industry.
2[3] Cultivation of rice and indigo.—Note 4.

NOTES

Note 1.—Character of the Colonists. The most of the settlers who came at first were poor but worthy people, yet they were not industrious nor did they have good managing ability. Therefore they were not the best material with which to build a thriving colony. Many of them proved to be a burden to the colonists rather than good citizens. It was the German Lutherans (1724), the Scotch Highlanders (1736), and the French Huguenots, who settled in Georgia, to whom the credit belongs of saving the colony from failure.

Note 2.—Regulations. The following are some of the regulations of the proprietary government:—

1. Colonists had neither voice nor vote in the government.
2. Land titles were not issued.
3. Women and girls could not inherit or hold land.
4. The importation of distilled liquor was prohibited.
5. African slavery was forbidden, though to sell slaves for a term of years was allowed.

Note 3.—Cause of the War of 1740. The Spaniards who were in possession of Florida claimed Georgia as a part of their territory. Oglethorpe had received a charter of the territory from the king.

When war broke out between England and Spain this gave opportunity to settle the dispute over Georgia.

Note 4.—Cultivation of Rice and Indigo. The Colonial seal adopted by the trustees represented the unselfish motives of the founder of the colony. It contained a group of silk worms spinning their cocoons with the following motto: "Non sibi, sed alius,"—"Not for themselves, but for others." In 1749, the trustees of the Tonster colony yielded to the demand of the settlers for negro slaves. After this event large plantations of rice and indigo were cultivated.

7. The Spanish in North America.

   1[1] Territory explored and claimed. Name explorers, with dates.

2[1] Settlements made. (To be filled in by the pupil.)

Name	Place	Date	Object	Leading Characters.

3[1] Discuss the character of the settlers and their relations to Protestant and Republican principles.

8. The French in North America.

1[1] Territory explored and claimed. Name explorers, with dates.

2[1] Settlements made. (To be filled in by pupil.)

Name	Place	Date	Object	Leading Characters

3[1] Discuss the character of the settlers and their relation to Protestant and Republican principles.

4[1] Why were the French unsuccessful in making settlements along the coast?—Note.

NOTE

"Nothing seemed more probable at one time than that France would be the owner of New England. . . . . New England was early an object of desire with the French. As early as the year 1605, DeMont explored and claimed for France, the rivers, the coasts, and the bays of New England. But the decree had gone out that the beast of Rome should never pollute this land of promise, and it could not be revoked. The hostile savages first prevented their settlement. Yet they yielded not their purpose. Thrice in the following year was the attempt renewed, and twice were they driven back by adverse winds, and the third time wrecked at sea. Again did Pourtrincourt attempt the same enterprise, but was, in a like manner, compelled to abandon the project. It was not so written. This was the land of promise which God would give to the people of his own choice. Hither he would transplant the vine which he had brought out of Egypt. Here it should take root, and send its boughs unto the sea and its branches unto the river.

"At a still later period, a French armament of forty ships of war under the Duke D'Anville was destined for the destruction of New England. It sailed from Nova Scotia for this purpose. In the meantime the pious people, apprised of their danger, had appointed a day of fasting and prayer to be observed in all the churches. While Mr. Prince was officiating in Old South Church, Boston, on this

fast day, and praying most fervently that the dreadful calamity might be averted, a sudden gust of wind arose (the day, until then, had been perfectly clear) so violently as to cause the clattering of the windows. The reverend gentleman paused in his prayer, and looking around on the congregation with a countenance of hope, he again commenced, and with a great devotional ardor, supplicated the Almighty to cause that wind to frustrate the object of their enemies. A tempest ensued in which the greater part of the French fleet was wrecked. The Duke and his principal general committed suicide —many died with disease, and thousands were drowned. A small remnant returned to France without health, and spiritless, and the enterprise was abandoned forever."—*The Hand of God in History*, *pp. 38, 39.*

Wild was the day; the wintry sea
Moaned sadly on New England's strand,
When first the thoughtful and the free,
Our fathers, trod the desert land.

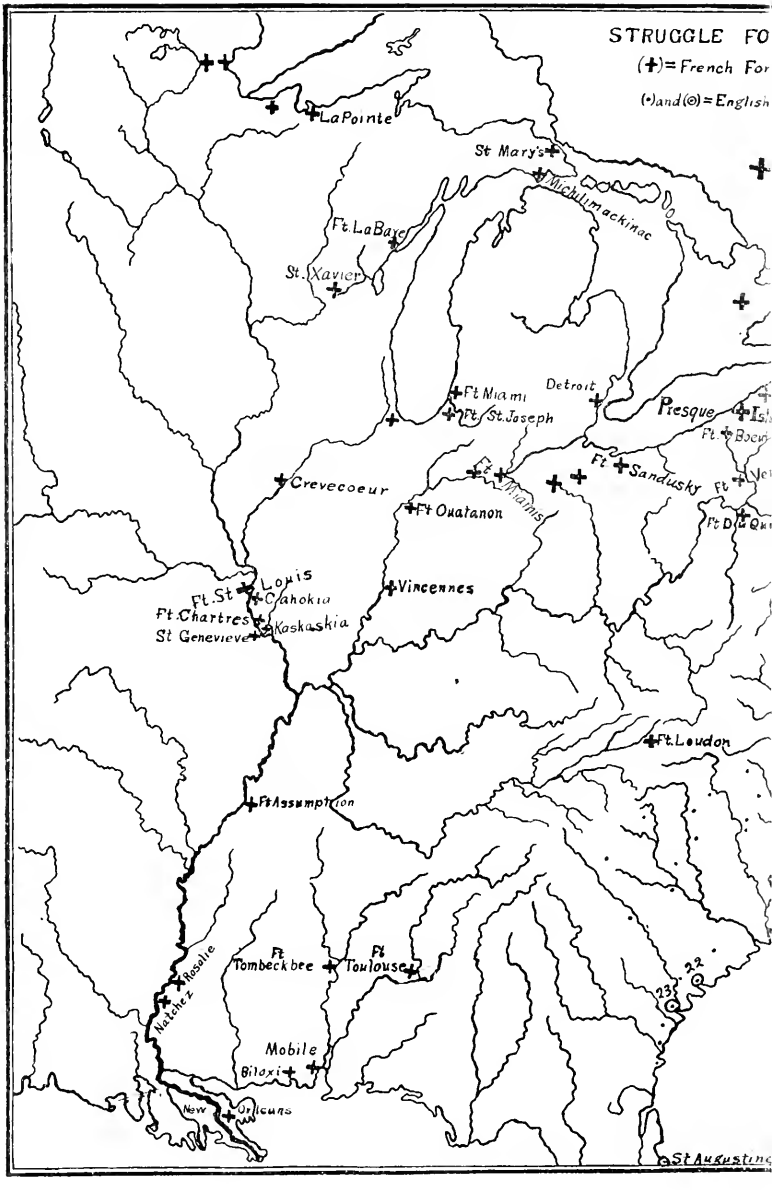
They little thought how pure a light,
With years, should gather round that day;
How love should keep their memories bright,
How wide a realm their sons should sway.

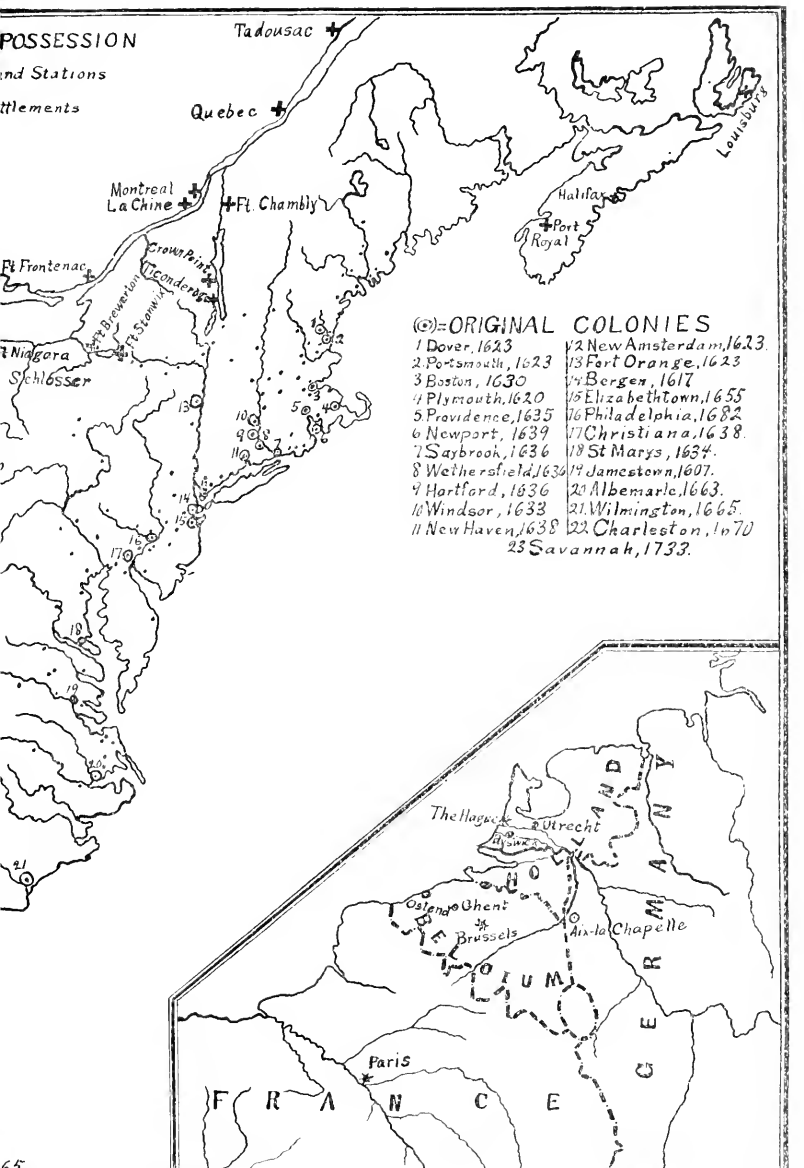
—*Bryant.*

SECTION IV.

Struggle between England and France for the Possession and Control of America

1. The English, French, and Spanish.
   - 1[1] Location and boundaries of each.
   - 2[1] Contrast the English and French.
     - 1[2] As to the occupation of their territory. —Note 1.
     - 2[2] As to their relation to the Indians.—Note 2.
     - 3[2] As to their strength for war.—Note 3.
     - 4[2] As to their feeling toward each other. —Note 4.
2. Geographical conditions affecting the struggle.
   - 1[1] Advantages and disadvantages of each nation.
   - 2[1] Relation of the mountains, rivers, lakes, etc. to the struggle.
3. King William's War, 1689–1697.
   - 1[1] Causes.—Note 5.
   - 2[1] Events.—Note 6.
   - 3[1] Results.—Note 7.
4. Queen Anne's War, 1702–1713.
   - 1[1] Causes.—Note 8.
   - 2[1] Events.
     - 1[2] Treaty of neutrality with the Five Nations.
     - 2[2] Indian massacres in Maine incited by the Jesuits.
     - 3[2] Deerfield, Massachusetts, destroyed in mid-winter, 1703–4.
     - 4[2] Two expeditions against Fort Royal, Nova Scotia, 1702, 1710..
     - 5[2] Invasion of Canada, 1711.
       - 1[3] Fleet from England failed.


STRUGGLE FO
(✝)= French For
(•)and(◎)= English
LaPointe
St Mary's
Michilimackinac
Ft LaBaye
St Xavier
Ft Miami
Detroit
Ft St Joseph
Presque
Ft Sandusky
Crevecoeur
Ft Ouatanon
Vincennes
Ft St Louis
Cahokia
Ft Chartres
Kaskaskia
St Genevieve
Ft Loudon
Ft Assumption
Ft Tombeckbee
Ft Toulouse
Natchez
Mobile
Biloxi
New Orleans
St Augustine


POSSESSION
nd Stations
ttlements
Tadousac
Quebec
Montreal
La Chine
Ft. Chambly
Halifax
Port Royal
Louisburg
Ft Frontenac
Crown Point
Ticonderoga
Ft Brewerton
Ft Stanwix
Niagara
Schlosser
(⊙)=ORIGINAL COLONIES
1 Dover, 1623
2 Portsmouth, 1623
3 Boston, 1630
4 Plymouth, 1620
5 Providence, 1635
6 Newport, 1639
7 Saybrook, 1636
8 Wethersfield, 1634
9 Hartford, 1636
10 Windsor, 1633
11 New Haven, 1638
12 New Amsterdam, 1623.
13 Fort Orange, 1623
14 Bergen, 1617
15 Elizabethtown, 1655
16 Philadelphia, 1682
17 Christiana, 1638.
18 St Marys, 1634.
19 Jamestown, 1607.
20 Albemarle, 1663.
21 Wilmington, 1665.
22 Charleston, 1670
23 Savannah, 1733.
The Hague
Utrecht
Ostend
Ghent
Brussels
Aix-la-Chapelle
Paris
HOLLAND
GERMANY
FRANCE
65.

2^3 Land forces from the colonies abandoned the enterprise.

3^1 Results: Treaty of Utrecht, April 11, 1713.

1^2 England gained Nova Scotia, New Foundland, and the New Foundland fisheries.

2^2 The boundary line between the English and French in America left unsettled.

5. King George's War, 1745–1748.

1^1 Causes.—Note 9.

2^1 Events.

1^2 Capture of Louisburg.

2^2 Indian devastations.

3^1 Results: Treaty of Aix la-Chapelle, Oct. 18, 1748.

1^2 Louisburg returned to France in exchange for Madras, India.

2^2 St. Mary's River fixed as the boundary between Florida and Georgia.

3^2 Effect of these wars upon the colonies.

6. French and Indian War, 1755–1763.

1^1 Causes and events leading to the war.

1^2 Conflicting claims to territory.

2^2 National animosity.

3^2 Formation of the Ohio Company, 1749.

1^3 Its object and of whom composed.

2^3 The grant of land, its location and survey.

1^4 60,000 acres on southeast bank of the Ohio River. Surveyed by Christopher Gist.

3^3 Fort built on present site of Pittsburg.

4^2 Movements on the part of the French.

1^3 Exploring parties sent out.

2^3 English fort destroyed and Ft. Duquesne built.

2^3 Other forts established.

5[2] Washington's mission to the French commander.
1[3] Results of.
6[2] Preparation for war by English and French.
1[3] Need of uniting the English colonies. The English and French contrasted.
1[4] Easy for the French in Canada to raise and equip an army.
1[5] The French viceroy had despotic rule over French America.
2[5] French regard for Canada.
2[4] Difficult to raise and equip an army in the thirteen colonies.
1[5] The object of the American wars on the part of both England and France was to extend their colonial possessions at expense of the other.
2[5] Long continued struggles and Indian wars created heavy debts on the colonies.
3[5] They were many separate governments and each waited on the other to act.
4[5] Results of this condition.
1[6] The French could plan campaigns, collect forces, and open warfare while the English legislatures were yet discussing what to do.
2[6] The Royal Governors complained to England of the perverseness of the Americans.
3[6] Many in England thought the colonies governed themselves

too much; that, for their own good, they should be taxed.

5[5] Conclusions.

1[6] The colonies must be bound together so that concerted action might be secured either by binding them absolutely to England or by a federal union in America.

3[4] The Albany Council, 1754.

1[5] By whom called? The British Ministry.

2[5] Of whom composed? Twenty-five delegates from seven colonies: New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, Pennsylvania, and Maryland.

3[5] Object.

1[6] To unite the colonies in measures of defense and to treat with the Indians.

1[6] To effect a permanent union of the colonies.

2[1] Campaigns—by what determined?

1[2] The five Objective Points. Why objective?

1[3] Fort Duquesne

1[4] Because of its location controlled the "Gateway of the West" and excluded the English from the Ohio valley.

2[4] First expedition, 1755.

1[5] General Braddock in command.

2[5] Geo. Washington, aid-de-camp.

3[5] Results.

3[4] Second expedition, three years after the first, 1758.

1[5] Feneral Forbes in command.

2[5] French driven out but burn the fort.

3[5] English take possession and change name to Pittsburg in honor of William Pitt, prime minister of England.

2[3] Louisburg and Acadia.

1[4] Controlled the New Foundland fisheries and formed a safe retreat for French ships sent to prey upon English vessels.

2[4] Six thousand Acadians scattered among the English colonies.—Why? (Read "Evangeline.")

3[4] General Loudon, 1757, feared to attack. Why?

4[4] General Amherst and General Wolfe captured fort, 1758.

5[4] Halifax made the English point of rendezvous.

3[3] Crown Point and Ticonderoga.

1[4] Controlled the route to Canada via Lake George and Lake Champlain and, so long as the French held it, New York and New England were subject to attacks by the French or Indians.

2[4] Two successful attempts to capture, 1755, 1758.

3[4] Amherst's successful campaign, 1759.

4[3] Niagara.

1[4] Controlled the fur trade of the Great Lakes region.

2⁴ Taken by the English, 1759, under Shirley.

5³ Quebec.

1⁴ Strongest fortification in Canada and controlled the St. Lawrence River.

2⁴ French under Montcalm.

3⁴ English under Wolfe.

4⁴ Battle, Plains of Abraham, 1759.

5⁴ Results.

2² Pontiac's War, 1763-65.

1³ Cause.—The Indians, not knowing that the French had actually lost control of the country, resolved to expel the English from west of the Mountains and destroy all their forts.

2³ Events.

1⁴ Pontiac, chief of the Ottawas, a Michigan tribe, formed a confederation of the ten tribes within the Great Lakes.

2⁴ Eight forts surprised and taken. (Only three—Detroit, Niagara, and Pittsburg remained.)

1⁵ Stratagem employed.

1⁶ Mackinaw—ball playing.

2⁶ Maumee—governor allured outside fort.

3⁶ Detroit—brightening chain of friendship.

3⁴ Birch-bark notes issued by Pontiac. Paid promptly when due.

4⁴ Thousands of persons fled from their homes to escape the scalping knife.

5⁴ Battle of Bushy Run, near Pittsburg, 1763.

6[4] Alliance deserted because of disagreement among the Indians.

7[4] Treaty of peace, 1766, at Oswego, New York.

8[4] Pontiac murdered, 1769, by Peorian Indian, who received a barrel of rum for his deed.

3[1] Results of the French and Indian War: Treaty of Paris, 1763.—Note 10.

1[2] Changes of national boundary lines.

1[3] France ceded to England all of Canada except two small islands (St. Pierre and Miquelon) near New Foundland which she was permitted to retain as shelter for her fishermen and a place on which to dry fish, and all her territory east of the Mississippi River except New Orleans and adjacent territory.

2[3] France ceded to Spain, by a secret treaty, New Orleans and all of Louisiana, for services rendered in this war.

2[2] Cost to the colonies.

1[3] Money—$16,000,000. England repaid $5,000,000.

2[3] Men—30,000 killed.

3[2] Views of the war.

1[3] English.

2[3] Colonial.

3[3] French.

4[2] Effect upon language, liberty, and laws in America.

5[2] Proclamation Line, 1763.

4[1] Show that this was a war for civilization.

5[1] Why did the Indians help the French more than

the English in these wars for the possession of America?

NOTES

Note 1.—Occupation of Territory. The English planted colonies, established homes, schools, and churches; carried on agriculture, commerce, etc.; and took an active part in the affairs of the government. The French set up trading posts, forts, and mission stations. They had no large farms and scracely any sign of self-government.

Note 2.—Relation to the Indians. The English more than all other Europeans were hated by the Indians, for their farms spoiled the Indians' hunting grounds, and they treated the Indians with contempt. The French interfered but little with their manner of life, and therefore gained favor more rapidly.

Note. 3.—Strength for War. The English were farmers, not soldiers. They fought only when compelled. The French were all well drilled, well organized, and ready for immediate action. Their disadvantage lay in the fact that their recruits and supplies had to come from Europe. They had no great farms nor flourishing colonies upon which to draw.

Note 4.—Feeling toward Each Other. The English Puritans had an English and Protestant dislike for the Roman Catholic French. The French Catholics had a corresponding hatred for the Protestant English.

Note 5.—Causes of War. James II of Scotland sought to re-establish the Catholic religion in England. He dissolved Parliament, increased the standing army from 10,000 to 20,000 and placed Catholics in command. He sought to make friends with the Protestant dissenters by issuing a declaration

granting liberty of conscience. This only embittered the people but they were reconciled with the hope that, upon the death of James, the crown would descend to his daughter Mary, wife of the Prince of Orange, both of whom were Protestants. In 1688 a prince was born which destroyed this hope, whereupon an invitation was sent to the Prince of Orange to come with such an army as he could raise and take possession of the throne. He accepted the invitation and met with hearty support from the English people.

When James saw that his subjects had deserted him, he sought to regain their support and avert the threatened danger by good promises and concessions, but all in vain. The queen with her son fled to France. After disbanding the army and throwing the Great Seal into the Thames, the king also fled to France. Lewis XIV of France took up the cause of James. War between France and England followed. The French in America coveted the valleys of the Hudson and Mohawk Rivers, so as to cut off the English approach to the Great Lakes and any part in the fur trade of the northwest. The outbreak of war in Europe seemed to afford them an opportunity to secure these valleys.

Note 6.—Events. The Indian allies of the French opened the contest in June, 1689, by falling upon the English settlement at Dover and destroying it. Schenectady, Salmon Falls, and Casco were also visited by Indian Massacres, after which the English became thoroughly aroused. An expedition was sent out to move against Montreal, Canada, under General Phipps.

Note 7.—Results. The treaty of Ryswick, Oct. 30, 1697, ended the war. The colonial boundary lines remained unchanged. The first paper money issued

in America, $133,338, was issued in Massachusetts to defray the expenses of Phipps' expedition. France acknowledged King William as sovereign.

Note 8.—Cause of Queen Anne's War. In the year 1700, the king of Spain, Charles II, died without any direct heir, but named Philip of Anjou, grandson of Lewis XIV of France, as his successor. This pointed to a union of the Crowns of France and Spain, both Catholic countries. The Protestant nations objected. England, Holland, and Austria each put forth a candidate. War followed. James II who had recently fled from England died in 1701. Lewis XIV in violation of the Treaty of Ryswick, recognized the son of James as rightful heir to the English throne, and attempted to secure the throne for him. This trouble in Europe afforded another opportunity for the French in America to fall upon the English settlements in an effort to secure the Hudson and Mohawk valleys. The conflict was opened by an Indian massacre in Maine incited by the Jesuits.

Note 9.—Cause of King George's War. Charles VI of Austria died. There were two claimants. England took up the cause of one; France, the other. Nearly all the countries of Europe were swept into the conflict. Another opportunity was thus afforded for trouble in the valleys of the Hudson and Mohawk rivers.

Note 10.—Results of the War. The war of defense had ended in a war of conquest. England had gained the whole continent east of the Mississippi River including Canada and Florida. But with the acquisition of this vast territory, England received a problem in government which she was scarcely prepared to handle. The English colonies in America had gone ahead of the mother country in developing

the principles of a government "of the people, by the people, and for the people." Some of the acts of the king in organizing a government for his new possessions were especially displeasing to the Americans. A large standing army was necessary in order to hold and protect the territory west of the Appalachian mountains; and, to secure the money necessary to support such an army, heavy taxes were imposed upon the colonies and this without the consent of their legislature. As another way of raising money the old navigation laws, so bitterly hated in the colonies, were rivived. In order to evade some of these laws, smuggling was practiced, particularly in Massachusetts. Such a course met with very severe treatment. The right of trial by jury was denied any one suspected of violation of the navigation laws.

In 1763 the king issued a proclamation setting apart the territory between the Appalachian mountains and the Mississippi River as Indian territory and prohibiting the colonies from making grants of land or settlements in that region. The object of the king seems to heve been to appease the Indians, win the support of the French, and thus prevent trouble between the frontier English settlements and the French and Indians. There was a difference in the way England viewed these wars and the way her colonies in America viewed it. England thought she had done a great deal for the colonies by protecting them against the French. The colonies felt that they had helped England to extend her territory and establish her rule above France. Franklin expressed the colonial views before the House of Commons when he said, "The colonies raised, paid, and clothed nearly 25,000 men during the last war, a number equal to those sent from Britain, and far beyond their proportion; they went deeply into debt in doing this, and all

their taxes and estates are mortgaged, for many years to come, for discharging this debt." Therefore they were very much displeased at being shut out of the territory for which they had fought so bravely.

At the beginning of the struggle for the possession of America, there was but little in common among the colonies. The lack of conveniences for travel and of commercial intercourse among the colonies together with their religious prejudices served to keep them separated. Therefore of more importance than the extension of territory were the lessons learned by the colonial troops in fighting and camping side by side in a common cause. "This drinking from the same canteen proved a powerful force in drawing the members of the different colonies closer together."

During the first years of the war, the colonial commanders received but slight recognition from the British officers; but, when William Pitt became prime minister of England, England's war policy for America was changed. Officers of a different character were placed over the armies and the colonial officers were consulted in laying plans for important campaigns, and their men were treated as British regulars. Such men as Washington, Gates, Montgomery, Morgan, Marion, Stark, Putnam, and Arnold received a military training of great value, while they learned to brave danger in defence of home and liberty. Thus the Colonies received a preparation for the Revolutionary War soon to be fought.

This war also settled it, that the English language, not the French; the Protestant religion, not the Catholic; English laws and customs with civil and religious liberty, not oppression by church and state united, should be established in America. Had

France succeeded in this war, America would have become a Catholic empire. Both civil and religious liberty would have been crushed out of the English settlements by the same power which persecuted the Albigenses so severely.

Still stands the forest primeval; but under the shade of its branches
Dwells another race, with other customs and language.
Only along the shore of the mournful and misty Atlantic
Linger a few Acadian peasants, whose fathers from exile
Wandered back to their native land to die in its bosom.

—*Longfellow.*

SECTION V.

English Rule of America—The Struggle for the Rights of Englishmen, or Causes and Events Leading to the American Revolution.

1. King George III and the Royal Governors; personal character of.
   1. The policy of George III. and the Tories.
      1. "The proclamation of 1763."
         1. Its object.
         2. Three new provinces—boundaries of each.
         3. "The proclamation line"—indicate in map.
         4. Its relation to the colonies and its effect.
         5. Provisions for the defense of newly acquired territory.
2. Rights of Englishmen.
   1. As understood in England—England claimed the right to govern her colonies arbitrarily the spirit of despotism.
   2. As understood in the American colonies—the colonies claimed as a birthright equal rights with all Englishmen the spirit of republicanism.
3. Influence of France.
   1. Treaty of Paris, 1763.
4. Disputes over taxation and representation.
   1. Lack of union among the colonies, and reasons for taxing them.
   2. Colonial reception of the tax laws.
   3. Methods employed by England for collecting taxes.

1[2] Navigation laws and acts of trade.
1[3] 1651, all comerce with England must be conducted in English ships, manned by English seamen.
2[3] 1660, all colonial exports, except what England did not want, had to be sent to England and in English vessels.
3[3] 1665, all colonial imports were to come from England.
4[3] 1672, duties were imposed upon articles shipped from one colony to another.
2[2] Writs of Assistance, 1761.
3[2] Stamp Act, 1765.
1[3] Resistance in the colonies.
1[4] Protests, 1764.
2[4] Stamp Act Congress, 1765. (First Colonial Congress).
1[5] Declaration of rights.
2[5] Petition to the king.
3[5] Memorial to Parliament.
2[4] Sons of Liberty.
2[3] Repeal of the Stamp Act and passage of the Declaratory Act, 1776.
4[2] The Townshend Act, 1767. (Glass, paper, painter's colors, and tea).
1[3] Principles involved.
1[4] External and internal taxes.
2[4] Objects for which this money was used.
2[3] Results.
1[4] Boston Massacre, 1770.
2[4] Duties repealed except on tea, 1770.
1[5] Cheap tea and the Boston tea party, 1773.
3[4] The Committee of Correspondence.
1[5] Its origin, purpose, and work.

4[2] The five Intolerable Acts.
1[3] The Boston Port Bill (Georgia sent nearly 600 barrels of rice to feed the people of Boston).
2[3] The Massachusetts Bill or Regulating Act.
3[3] The Transportation Act.
4[3] The Quartering Act.
5[3] The Quebec Act.
1[4] This act also provided for the free exercise of the Roman Catholic religion in Quebec, and restored to the French most of their political rights.
2[4] This prevented them from uniting with the English colonies in the Revolutionary War.
3[4] The country north of the Ohio and east of the Mississippi River was made a part of the province of Quebec, Canada.

5. The first Continental Congress, 1774.
1[1] Relation to the Committee of Correspondence.
2[1] Place of meeting and length of session.
1[2] Philadelphia, September 5th to October 26th.
3[1] Colonies represented.
1[2] All except Georgia—royal governor of Georgia prevented the election of delegates.
4[1] Measures adopted.
1[2] The colonies sustained Massachusetts in her conflict.
2[2] A petition was sent to the king.
3[2] An address was sent to the people of Great Britain and one to the people of Canada.
4[2] A declaration of rights was issued.

1[3] Repeal of eleven of the objectionable acts of Parliament was demanded.
2[3] Asserted the right to tax themselves.
3[3] Asserted the right to assemble peaceably for purposes of petition.
4[3] Demanded that they be accorded the "rights of Englishmen" as laid down by the king in all charters.

5[1] Effect in England.
1[2] King and Parliament more determined to coerce Massachusetts.
2[2] Ten thousand troops sent to America; Boston Neck fortified, 1774.

6[1] Effect in America.
1[2] American association formed (Non-importation Association).
2[2] Minute men organized, Colonial stores moved to Concord.

6. Beginning of hostilities, 1775. (Read "Paul Revere's Ride" by Longfellow.)
1[1] Battle of Lexington and Concord, April 19.
2[1] Capture of Ticonderoga and Crown Point, May 10.
1[2] Effect of these upon the colonies.

7. Second Continental Congress, May 10, 1775.
1[1] Sent their ultimatum to the king, in which they recognized him as their rightful sovereign, and once more petitioned him for a redress of grievances; but plainly stated they had chosen war rather than voluntary slavery.
2[1] Voted to raise an army of 20,000 men.
3[1] Voted to borrow 6,000 pounds, and to issue $2,000,000 of paper money.
4[1] Formed the united colonies of America, and assumed authority over them.

5[1] Chose George Washington as Commander-in-chief of the continental army.

6[1] To what extent was its authority recognized by the several colonial legislatures?

8. Note the age of the several colonies and show why Massachusetts and Virginia were foremost and New York backward in responses during the Revolution.

9. Show the difference between Massachusetts and Virginia in their political life.

10. Leading warriors and statesmen whom God raised up for this time.

1[1] In America.

1[2] George Washington, John Adams, Samuel Adams, Benjamin Franklin, Patrick Henry, Thomas Jefferson, James Madison, Robert Morris, John Hancock, Alexander Hamilton.

2[1] In England.

1[2] William Pitt, Charles Fox, and leaders of the Whig party.

3[1] In France.

1[2] La Fayette.

By the rude bridge that arched the flood,
Their flag to April's breeze unfurled,
Here once the embattled farmers stood,
And fired the shot heard round the world.

—*Emerson.*

SECTION VI.

Struggle for Independence, or the American Revolution.

1. Advantages and disadvantages for carrying on war against England.—Note 1.
2. In studying the war, note the fields of operation as of more importance than than the dates of events.
3. Principal campaigns and battles, with reasons and plans for each, and the names of the leading officers in either army.
   - 1[1] In New England.
     - 1[2] Events in and around Boston.
     - 2[2] Invasion of Canada.
   - 2[1] In the middle colonies.
     - 1[2] Struggle for the possession of the Hudson and the middle colonies.
       - 1[3] Reasons for desiring possession of the Hudson and plans for securing it.
       - 2[3] American plans for defense.
       - 3[3] Battle of Long Island.
       - 4[3] Washington's retreat.
         - 1[4] Battle of White Plains.
         - 2[4] Charles Lee's treachery and capture.
         - 3[4] Battle of Trenton.
         - 4[4] Battle of Princeton.
       - 5[3] Three-fold plan of the British for taking New York.
         - 1[4] Colonel St. Ledger to form an alliance with the Six Nations, descend the Mohawk valley, and join Burgoyne at Albany.

2[4] Wm. Howe to hold New York with a portion of his troops and with the main body of his army join Burgoyne at Albany.

3[4] Burgoyne's invasion of New York.

1[5] Battle of Bennington.

2[5] Battles near Saratoga.

1[6] Surrender of Burgoyne.

2[6] Effects of.

6[3] Washington's campaign and plans for defense.

1[4] Battle of Chad's Ford on the Brandywine.

2[4] Battle of Germantown.

3[4] Winter quarters.

1[5] Howe at Philadelphia.

2[5] Washington at Valley Forge.

1[6] Canway cabal.

7[3] Effects of these campaigns upon

1[4] The Americans.

2[4] The British.

3[4] The French alliance.

8[3] The British abandon Philadelphia and go to New York.

9[3] Battle of Monmouth.

10[3] Capture of Stony Point.

11[3] Arnold's treason and surrender of West Point.

3[1] In the west.

1[2] Illinois expedition.

2[2] Results.

4[1] On the waters.

1[2] Naval warfare, to what extent carried on by the colonies?

2[2] Victories of Paul Jones, and their importance.

5[1] In the South.
1[2] Reasons for transferring the war to the South.
2[2] Siege of Fort Moultrie (Charleston), 1777.
3[2] Attack upon Savannah, 1779.
4[2] Siege of Charleston, 1780.
5[2] Battle of Camden, 1780.
6[2] Battle of King's Mountain, 1781.
7[2] Green's compaign and retreat, 1781.
1[3] Battle of Cowpens.
2[3] Battle of Guilford Court House.
3[3] Other battles.
4[3] Divine providences connected with.
8[2] Siege of Yorktown, 1781.
1[3] Surrender of Cornwallis.
2[3] End of the war.

4. Treaty of peace and results of the war.
1[1] Peace commissioners and their instruction.
2[1] Conditions in the way of securing peace.—Note 2.
1[2] Nations interested and their claims.
1[3] England.
2[3] France.
3[3] Spain.
4[3] America.
2[2] Conditions in the English Cabinet.
3[2] The Franco-Spanish Alliance.
1[3] How did France try to satisfy Spain?
4[2] The Franco-American Alliance.
1[3] Influence of Jay and Adams upon negotiations.
5[2] How these difficulties were overcome.
3[1] Provisions of the treaty.—Note 3.
1[2] Boundaries. Indicate upon the map.
2[2] Fisheries.
3[2] Private debts.

4. Compensation of the Royalists (Tories).
5. Navigation of the Mississippi.
6. Slaves.

NOTES

Note 1.—Advantages and Disadvantages of the American Colonies. Under ordinary circumstances England might have landed soldiers and supplies enough in America to have subdued the revolted colonies in a very short time. But it is an interesting fact worthy of note that God so timed events in Europe and America that, when the American colonies revolted, England was involved in war with France, Spain, and Holland. This made it difficult for her to raise a large army and conduct a warfare so far from home, since all her men and supplies for war were needed in Europe; also in sending armies and equipment to America her vessels were subject to attacks from her European enemies. In order to get soldiers for her wars, England had to hire thousands of foreign troops. There were certain small states in Europe which made war a business, training troops for service, and hiring them to such nations as needed their services. During the revolution there were sent to America about 30,000 of these soldiers. They were called Hessians because they came from Hesse-Cassel, one of the small states of Germany.

Note 2.—European Difficulties in the Way of American Independence.

1. Political Parties and Their Principles. There were in England, at this time, three political parties of considerable power and influence; namely, the Old Whigs, the New Whigs, and the Tories.

The Old Whigs represented the old aristocracy of England. They strongly sympathized with the

American cause, and were the first to urge the recognition of American independence. The leader of this party was the Marquis of Rockingham. His most influential associates were Charles Fox and Edmund Burke.

The New Whigs stood for principles much more liberal than the Old Whigs. They not only sympathized with the American colonies, but also advocated parliamentary reform and free trade. The principal manager of this party was Lord Shelbourne, who was so suspicious of other men that other men were suspicious of him. In matters of political economy and needed reform, he was ahead of his age, and there was a harshness in his manner of presenting his ideas which made him generally disliked and his followers few.

The Tories were sympathizers with the king and opposed the growing power and influence of Parliament.

2. The English Cabinet. In the selection of a new cabinet, the king felt disposed to place Lord Shelbourne in the first position of the treasury, perhaps because he thought that on account of Shelbourne's disposition and strong views, dissension would arise which would prevent his party from growing too strong, and from which he himself hoped to profit. When Shelbourne refused, the king was forced to call upon Lord Rockingham, but he sent his communication to him through Shelbourne, who, thus conspicuously singled out as the object of royal preference, was certain to incur the distrust of his fellow ministers.

Of the members of the cabinet, Rockingham, John Cavendish, Charles Fox, Lord Keppel, and the Duke of Richmond were all Old Whigs. There were also five New Whigs—The Duke of Grafton, Lord Shel-

bourne, Camden, Ashburton, and General Conway. The Tory chancellor, Lord Thurlow, was the eleventh member. Edmund Burke was made paymaster but had no seat in the cabinet.

The leading spirits of the cabinet were Shelbourne and Fox who wrangled perpetually, while Thurlow carried the news of their quarrel to the king, and in cabinet meeting usually voted with Shelbourne.

3. Complications Involved. Seldom has there been a situation more strongly complicated. Fox was made secretary of state for foreign affairs, while Shelbourne was secretary of state for home and colonies. Peace was to be made with Holland, France, Spain, and America. France and Spain had united against England by one treaty of alliance and France and America by another. In some respects these treaties conflicted in the duties which they imposed upon the contracting parties, and Spain was strongly opposed to America.

4. Views Regarding Independence. Just as soon as the proposition was made to end the war with the colonies by acknowledging their independence, the question arose as to whose department should conduct the negotiations. Shelbourne claimed that the American states were still English colonies and therefore the treaty belonged to his department. Fox claimed that if independence was recognized, America became a foreign power and therefore the treaty belonged to his department.

How natural then that the views of these two secretaries should differ widely as to the method of conceding American independence! Fox believed that France was in need of peace and would make no further demands on England if American independence should once be recognized. Therefore he would make this concession as a preliminary to the

negotiations. Shelbourne believed that France would make further demands and would hold the recognition of independence in reserve as a consideration to be bargained for.

5. Beginning of Negotiations. For many years Franklin and Shelbourne had been warm friends and in one of his letters to Shelbourne, in March, 1782, Franklin expressed a hope that peace might soon be restored. With the consent of the cabinet, Shelbourne answered by sending Richard Oswald as an agent to Paris to talk unofficially with Franklin and ascertain the terms upon which the Americans would make peace.

In one of his conversations with Oswald, Franklin suggested that in order to make permanent peace it is always best to remove all occasions for further quarrels; that the line of frontier between New York and Canada was occupied by a lawless set of men, who, in time of peace, would be likely to breed trouble between their respective governments; it would therefore be advisable for England to cede Canada to the United States. A similiar reason would apply to Nova Scotia. Another advantage pointed out by Franklin in this connection was that by ceding those countries to the United States, it would be possible from the sale of unappropriated lands to indemnify the Americans for all losses of private property during the war and also make reparation to the Tories whose estates had been confiscated. By this course England would not only secure peace but reconciliation with Amercia, and reconciliation, said Franklin, is a "sweet word". At these demands Oswald expressed neither surprise nor reluctance.

During this conversation Franklin had written out the main points of his talk, and, at Oswald's request,

allowed him to take the paper to London to show to Lord Shelbourne, first writing on it a note declaring its informal character. Franklin also sent a letter to Shelbourne describing Oswald as a gentleman with whom he found it very pleasant to deal.

6. Shelbourne's Reply and Grenville's Commission. Shelbourne received from Oswald the notes of his conversation with Franklin, also Franklin's letter. He showed the notes to Lord Ashburton only, kept the paper over night, and then returned it to Franklin without formal answer, but the letter he showed to the cabinet. On April 23, it was decided to send Oswald back to France with the message that, on being restored to the position in which she was left by the treaty of 1763, England would be willing to recognize the independence of the United States. Fox was authorized to make the same representation to the French government, which he did through Thomas Grenville, son of the author of the Stamp Act.

Oswald had no right to conclude terms of peace until an enabling act should be carried through Parliament, but while waiting for this he might still talk informally with Franklin. He was instructed to impress upon Franklin's mind that, if America was to be independent at all, she must be independent of the whole world and must not enter into any secret alliance with France which might limit her entire freedom of action in the future.

To Franklin's suggestions of three reasons for the cession of Canada, Shelbourne made answer as follows: "1. *By way of reparation.* Answer. No reparation can be heard of. 2. *To prevent future wars.* Answer. It is to be hoped that some more friendly method will be found. 3. *As to a fund of indemnification to Royalists.* Answer. No independ-

ence to be acknowledged without their being taken care of."

7. Grenville's Conference with Vergennes. When Grenville had his interview with Vergennes, the French minister with whom he hoped to form a treaty of peace, he represented that if England recognized the independence of the United States she would expect France to restore the Islands of the West Indies, which DeGrasse had recently taken from England. Vergennes haughtily refused this offer, and stated that he did not consider the independence of the United States as a concession to France in any way; that as regards the recognition of independence, England must treat directly with the United States.

Grenville was disappointed by this answer, and the cabinet concluded that there was no more use to try to get an honorable treaty with France for the present. It was therefore thought best to act upon the suggestion of Vergennes, though not in the sense which he meant it, and, by granting all the Americans could reasonably desire, to detach them from the French alliance as soon as possible. These conclusions were reached before the news came of Rodney's naval victory by which the West Indies were once more in the possession of England. When this intelligence was received, all England rang with joy and the cabinet at once decided "to propose the independence of America in the first instance instead of making it the condition of a general treaty."

8. Dissolution of the Cabinet. The dispute between Fox and Shelbourne once more arose as to which should conduct the negotiations. On the last day of June, Fox introduced a motion in the cabinet that the independence of the United States should be unconditionally acknowledged, so that England

might treat as with a foreign power. The motion was lost and Fox announced that he should resign his office. On the next day Lord Rockingham died.

The Old Whigs now found some difficulty in choosing a leader. But their choice finally settled upon the Duke of Portland, and the king was urged to make him his prime minister. This position had already been offered to Shelbourne. Therefore Fox and Cavendish at once resigned. Richmond and Keppel remained in office, thus virtually breaking with the Old Whig party. Many others went over to the New Whig party. William Pitt succeeded Cavendish and Thomas Townshend became secretary of state for home and colonies and Lord Grantham became foreign secretary.

These changes in the British ministry, together with the defeat of the Spaniards and French at Gibraltar in September, greatly simplified the task of forming a treaty of peace.

9. New Complications Arise. The object of the French-American alliance was to secure American independence aud humiliate England. This was substantially done. The object of the Franko-Spanish alliance was to drive the English from Gibraltar, and this point was decidedly lost. France had promised not to cease from war until Spain had regained Gibraltar. Now there remained but one hope for this to be accomplished and that was by sharp dealings in forming a treaty. Failing to trade West Florida to England for Gibraltar, Vergennes attempted to satisfy Spain at the expense of the United States.

10. Boundary Proposed. The possibility for enormous growth which the vast territory lying between the Allegheny Mountains on the east and the Mississippi River on the west, the Great Lakes on

the north and Florida on the south, would afford to the new nation, was clearly foreseen by sagacious men. The French government was very unwilling to leave this territory in American hands. Vergennes therefore maintained that the Americans ought to recognize the boundary line fixed by the Quebec Act, giving up to England all the territory north of the Ohio River. The territory south of this river he would have regarded as Indian territory under the protection of Spain and the United States, according to certain boundary lines which he specified.

11. Newfoundland Fisheries. By a treaty between England and France, they had shared the privileges of the Newfoundland fisheries, and they both agreed that this right should not be granted to the United States. But as British subjects the New England fishermen had built up a great trade through this industry, and it served also as a training school for seamen. To deprive them of their right in these fisheries was to greatly weaken the strength and resources of the new nation. It seemed that Vergennes hoped by some such contention to so delay the treaty that he might exact some of his Spanish claims from America.

12. New Arrivals from America and their Influence upon the Negotiations. John Jay, who had lately arrived in France to take part in the negotiation, soon began to suspect the design of the French minister. He found what he considered evidences of underhanded work, and sent Benjamin Vaughan to Lord Shelbourne to put him on his guard and to make known his willingness to begin negotiations without waiting for formal recognition of independence, provided that Oswald's commission should speak of the thirteen United States of America, instead of calling them colonies and naming them

separately. Lord Shelbourne acted npon the suggestion. A new commission was made out for Oswald in which our country was described as the United States.

On the part of England the negotiations were conducted by Oswald assisted by Strachey; and Fitzherbert succeeded Grenville. In November John Adams and Henry Laurens joined the American commission. The arrival of Adams fully decided the question as to a separate negotiation with England. He agreed with Jay that Vergennes should be kept somewhat in the dark as to the progress of the treaty until all the details were worked out. Inasmuch as the treaty of alliance between the United States and France provided that neither nation should make peace without the other, Franklin yielded very reluctantly. It is claimed that the Americans kept the letter of their contract and were not guilty of ingratitude or bad faith because it was declared in the preamble to the treaty with England that the articles here signed were provisional, and that the treaty was not to take effect until terms of peace should be agreed upon between England and France.

Note 3.—Negotiations completed; Terms of the Treaty. As soon as the problem was reduced to a negotiation between the American commissioners and Lord Shelbourne's ministry, the way was cleared at once. The principal question had already been discussed between Franklin and Oswald.

The main provisions of the treaty were as follows:—

1. An acknowledgement of the independence of the United States of America.

2. The boundaries of the new republic were to extend to the Mississippi River on the west, and from

Nova Scotia, the St. Lawrence River and Great Lakes on the north, to Florida on the south.

3. The free navigation of the Mississippi River and the Great Lakes was granted to the United States.

4. The Americans retained the right to catch fish on the Banks of Newfoundland and in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, but lost the right of drying their fish on the Newfoundland coast. No provision was made to grant English subjects the right to fish on American coast.

5. American merchants were to pay all debts contracted by them with British merchants before the war.

6. Congress was to recommend to the state legislatures that they restore civil rights to all Tories and make payment for all Tory property confiscated during the war.

7. The king was to withdraw all his armies, garrisons, and fleet from the United States, and do so as speedily as convenient, without causing destruction of property or carrying away any slaves or other property belonging to the Americans.

In their ragged regimentals
Stood the old continentals,
Yielding not,
When the grenadiers were lunging,
And like hail fell the plunging
Cannon-shot.

—*Mc Master.*

SECTION VII.

The Formation Period of American Constitutional Government

1. Steps in the development of the constitution.
   - 1[1] The forms of colonial government contained the germs of liberty.
     - 1[2] Note the love of liberty and the interest taken in the government of the colonies.
   - 2[1] The New England Confederacy, 1643.
     - 1[2] Object.
     - 2[2] Provisions.
   - 3[1] Albany Convention, 1754.
     - 1[2] Object.
     - 2[2] Franklin's plan for union.
     - 3[2] Results.
   - 4[1] The first Colonial or Stamp Act Congress, 1765.
     - 1[2] Purpose.
     - 2[2] Results.
   - 5[1] The first Continental Congress (Second Colonial Congress) 1774.
     - 1[2] Cause—England's oppression of the colonies.
     - 2[2] Measures adopted.
   - 6[1] Second Continental Congress, 1775.
     - 1[2] First meeting, May 10.
       - 1[3] Actions taken.
     - 2[2] Second session, 1776.
       - 1[3] Influence of Mecklenburg Declaration.
       - 2[3] Declaration of Independence.
       - 3[3] Committee appointed to prepare Articles of Confederation.
       - 4[3] Committee or ambassadors sent to France.

5[3] The several colonies were asked to adopt state constitutions.

3[2] Other sessions, 1777–1781.

1[3] Articles of Confederation adopted and submitted to the states, November, 1777.

2[3] Provisions for carrying on the war.

7[1] The states adopt constitutions—forms of, as adopted.

1[2] Separation of Church and State; Religious Revolution.—Note 1.

2[2] Republican principles in government.

8[1] Articles of Confederation.

1[2] Adopted by Congress, 1777.

2[2] Became operative March 1, 1781.

1[3] Why so long delayed?

3[2] Chief provisions of.

1[3] Bound the states to enter into a firm league of friendship with each other.

2[3] All votes in Congress were to be cast by states and each state was to have but one vote.

3[3] Congress reserved the power to declare war and to negotiate all treaties.

4[3] Congress, on appeal, was to decide all disputes between the states.

5[3] The states reserved the right to regulate commerce and to raise all revenues and taxes.

6[3] Congress shared with the states the right to issue and coin money.

7[3] Congress could appoint a committee to manage the government during the recess of Congress.

8[3] The union was to be perpetual and the Articles could be changed or amended

only by the consent of Congress and of each state legislature.

4[2] What the Confederation accomplished.

1[3] It made treaties of peace.

2[3] It enacted the Ordinance of 1787 for the government of the northwest territory.

1[4] This ordinance guaranteed perfect religious freedom.

2[4] It provided that school and education should be encouraged.

3[4] It prohibited slavery but provided a fugitive slave law.

4[4] It provided that all states carved out of the Northwest Territory should be admitted on equal privileges with the thirteen original states.

3[3] It received grants of land from the several states.

5[2] Defects of the Articles.

1[3] It provided a federation of the several states but not a union of the people.

2[3] Congress consisted of but one house and it represented the states only.

3[3] There was no provision for a chief executive.

4[3] Congress could advise, request, and implore; but had no power to enforce anything upon the states or the people.

9[1] State of the government under the Confederation.

1[2] Depleted treasury and specie scarce.

2[2] Shay's Rebellion, 1786.

3[2] Trouble with the Spanish over the Mississippi River.

1[3] Threats of secession.

2[3] Quarrels about commerce.

10[1] Annapolis Trade Convention.
1[2] Date.—September 11, 1786.
2[2] Purpose.—To agree upon a uniform commercial policy for the several states.
3[2] Result.—Only five states represented. Adjourned to meet in Philadelphia in May 1787, "To devise such further provisions as shall appear necessary to render the constitution of the federal government adequate to the exigencies of the Union."
11[1] The Constitutional Convention, 1787.
1[2] The work of the convention.
2[2] Plans proposed for union.
1[3] The "Virginian Plan."
2[3] The "New Jersey Plan."
3[3] Hamilton's Plan.
4[3] Pinckney's Plan.
5[3] The Connecticut Compromise.
3[2] Work of the committee on details.
4[2] Compromises.
1[3] Slavery.
2[3] Election of president.

2. The Constitution as adopted by the convention.—Note 2.
1[1] General scheme of government and plan of the constitution.
1[2] Origin and reasons.
2[1] The enacting clause—Preamble (memorize).
3[1] Departments or branches of the Government.
1[2] The Legislative Branch. Article I.
1[3] In whom the legislative power is vested.
1[4] Senate and House of Representatives.
1[5] Why two houses?
2[5] Qualification of members. Why?
3[5] Manner of electing members.
1[6] Origin of method.

2^{6} "Gerrymandering."
4^{5} Membership of each house.
1^{6} Basis of. Why?—Note 3.
2^{6} Manner of determining basis of representation.
3^{6} Present number in each house.
5^{5} Length of term of office; reasons for.
6^{5} Presiding officers.
2^{3} Powers of Congress.
1^{4} General law-making.
1^{5} Process of.
2^{5} Taxation.
1^{6} Origin of bills.
2^{6} Kind of taxes.
3^{6} Uniformity.
3^{5} To borrow money and pay obligations.
4^{5} To regulate commerce.
6^{5} To coin money and regulate weights and measures.
7^{5} To establish Post Offices and Post Roads.
8^{5} War power.
1^{6} To declare war.
2^{6} To raise, support, and regulate an army and navy.
9^{5} Acts prohibited to Congress.
1^{6} To interfere with slavery before 1809.
2^{6} To suspend the writ of Habeas Corpus.
3^{6} To pass bills of attainder and ex-post-facto laws.
4^{6} To grant titles of nobility.
5^{6} To levy export duties.
10^{5} Acts denied to State Legislatures.

1[6] To make alliances and engage in war.
2[6] To coin money or regulate its value.
3[6] To issue letters of Marque and Reprisal.
4[6] To pass bills of attainder or ex-post-facto laws.
5[6] To grant titles of nobility.
11[5] Session of Congress.
1[6] Long sessions. Dates.
2[6] Short sessions. Dates.
3[6] Special sessions.
12[5] Publicity of records.
1[6] How secured.
2[2] The Executive Branch. Article II.
1[3] In whom the executive power is vested.
1[4] Qualifications for president and vice president.
2[4] Manner of electing, then; now.
3[4] Length of term of office, and salary.
4[4] The President's Cabinet. How created?
1[5] Number of officers, then; now.
2[5] Names of present members.
5[4] Powers and duties of the President.
1[5] Military power.
2[5] Treaty-making power.
3[5] Appointing power.
4[5] His message to Congress.
5[5] Power over Congress.
6[5] Pardoning power.
6[4] Powers and duties of Vice President.
7[4] Impeachment.
3[2] The Judicial Branch. Article III.
1[3] Where the judicial power is vested.

1 Supreme Court.
  1^5 Number and names of the judges of.
    1^6 Their term of office.
    2^6 How vacancies are filled.
  2^5 Jurisdiction.
    1^6 Original.
    2^6 Appellate.
  3^5 Sessions.
2^4 Inferior Courts.
  1^5 Circuit Court of Appeals.
  2^5 United States Circuit Courts.
  3^5 United States District Courts.
  4^5 Special Courts.
    1^6 Supreme Court of the District of Columbia.
    2^6 The Court of Claims.
    3^6 Territorial Courts.
4^2 Relations between States and the United States. Article IV.
  1^3 Relation of States to each other.
  2^3 The jurisdiction of the general government over territories.
  3^3 Relation of the States to the General Government.
5^2 Amendments. Article V.
  1^3 Methods of amending the constitution.
  2^3 The "Bill of Rights."
  3^3 Number and subject of amendments adopted.
6^2 Public debt, the supreme law of the land, oath of office, religious test. Article VI.
7^2 Ratification or adoption of the constitution. Article VII.
  1^3 Methods of, or plans for its adoption.
    1^4 Submitted by the Convention to Congress, September 20, 1787.

2^4 Adopted by Congress and submitted to the State Legislatures after eight days' discussion.

3^4 The State Legislatures call conventions of the people to whom it is submitted and by whom it is finally adopted.

4^4 Wisdom of this method.

2^3 The growth of American political parties.

1^4 Federalists and Anti-federalists.

1^5 Their principles.

2^5 Their leaders.

3^5 Their influence upon the formation and adoption of the constitution.

3^3 Make a table of the dates when the several states ratified the constitution.

3. End of the Confederation and beginning of the new government.

1^1 Time for choosing electors—first Wednesday in January, 1789.

2^1 Time for voting for president—first Wednesday in February, 1789.

3^1 Time for the government to go into effect—first Wednesday in March, 1789.

4^1 Time when Washington was declared elected—April 6, 1789.

5^1 Washington's inauguration—April 30, 1789.

NOTES

Note 1.—Religious Revolution. "The history of the Reformation does not close, as many European authors have imagined, in a balanced and final distribution of the North and South between the Protestant and Catholic. Macaulay and others who have treated of the Reformation have taken too limited a view of it, supposing that this was its point of arrest.

It made another enormous stride when, at the American Revolution, the state and church were solemnly and openly dissevered from one another."—*Intellectual Development of Europe by J. W. Draper; Vol. 2. Chapter 6, pages 226 and 227.*

Note 2.—Suggestion to Pupils. During this study note the relation of the state constitution and forms of government, and of the colonial experiences with English law, to the provisions of our national constitution.

Note 3.—Basis of Representation. A republic is a government of the people through representatives. Every officer and legislator of the United States, or of any state, is directly or indirectly chosen by the people and is responsible to the people for the faithful discharge of his duty. But in the United States government the members of the House of Representatives are the most direct representatives of the people, of a certain state or district in a state, to represent their interests and wishes in making the laws of the nation.

The constitution places two limitations upon the number of representatives. It provides that each shall have at least one, and that there shall not be more than one to every thirty thousand of the representative population. This ratio has been changed from time to time as the population has increased. The census of the United States has been taken every ten years since 1790. As soon as possible after each census is taken, Congress fixes by law the ratio of representation by deciding the number of members to be seated in the House and then dividing the the whole population by it. The ratio based upon the census of 1910 is one representative for every 194,182 inhabitants. There are always just two rep-

resentatives from each state, elected by the direct vote of the people to represent the states as wholes.

Thou, too, sail on, O ship of State!
Sail on, O UNION, strong and great!
Humanity with all its fears,
With all its hopes of future years,
Is hanging breathless on thy fate!

—*Longfellow.*

SECTION VIII.

The National Period

1. George Washington's Admistration. Two terms, 1789-1797.
   - 1[1] Inauguration—April 30, 1789.
   - 2[1] Vice President—John Adams.
   - 3[1] Party in power—Federal.
   - 4[1] Events having an influence upon Protestant and Republican principles.
     - 1[2] Organization of the new government.
       - 1[3] Organization of the first congress—the Legislative Department.
         - 1[4] House of Representatives met and organized, April 1.
         - 2[4] The Senate organized, April 6.
       - 2[3] Formation of the president's cabinet—the Executive Department.
         - 1[4] Secretary of State—(a) Thomas Jefferson, (b) Edmund Randolph, (c) Timothy Pickering.
         - 2[4] Secretary of War—(a) Henry Knox (b) Timothy Pickering, (c) James McHenry.
         - 3[4] Secretary of the Treasury—(a) Alexander Hamilton, (b) Oliver Wolcott.
         - 4[4] Attorney General—(a) Edmund Randolph, (b) William Bradford, (c) Charles Lee.
       - 3[3] Organization of the judiciary—the Judicial Department.
         - 1[4] The United States Supreme Court.
         - 2[4] The United States Circuit Courts.

3^4 The United States District Courts.

2^2 Government finances.

1^3 Condition of.

2^3 Hamilton's plan.—Note 1.

1^4 To pay foreign debt and all interest due thereon—$11,710,378.00.

2^4 To pay all debts due from the government to its private citizens—$42,414,085.00.

3^4 To assume all debts contracted by the separate states during the Revolution aggregating $21,000,000.00.

4^4 To lay tariff upon imports for revenue and protection.

5^4 To levy an excise tax.

6^4 To establish a National Bank.

7^4 To establish a United States Mint.

3^3 Decimal coinage system adopted, 1792.

3^2 Adoption of the "Bill of Rights"—first ten Constitutional Amendments, 1787–1791.—Note 2.

4^2 Indian wars, 1790–1791.

5^2 Slavery.

1^3 Quakers petition Congress for Abolition, 1790.

2^3 Fugitive Slave Law, 1793.

3^3 Quakers petition for abolition, 1797.

6^2 Whisky Rebellion in Pennsylvania, 1794.

1^3 Opposition to the collection of the Whisky Tax.

2^3 Warning proclamation issued by the President.

3^3 Revenue officers attacked.

4^3 Troops sent to quell the insurrection.

7^2 Foreign affairs.

1[3] The United States and the French Revolution, 1793.
1[4] Citizen Genet.
2[4] Washington's proclamation of neutrality.
2[3] Treaties.
1[4] Jay's treaty with England, 1796.
2[4] Treaty with Spain, 1798.
3[4] Treaty with Algiers, 1796.
8[2] Sunday Schools established in America, 1791.
5[1] Events of interest unclassified.
1[2] First patent issued, 1790.
2[2] Death of Benjamin Franklin, 1790.
3[2] The first census taken.—Note 3.
4[2] Anthracite coal discovered in Pennsylvania, 1791.
5[2] Inventions.—Note 4.
1[3] Nail-cutting machine by Jacob Perkins, 1790.
2[3] Cotton gin by Eli Whitney, 1793.
6[2] The national capitol located, 1793.
7[2] First western newspaper, "Sentinel of the North-west," 1793.
8[2] New states admitted.
1[3] Vermont, 1791.
2[3] Tennessee, 1796.
3[3] Kentucky, 1792.
6[1] Presidential campaign, 1796.
1[2] Political parties and candidates.—Note 5.
1[3] Federal, John Adams.
2[3] Republican, Thomas Jefferson.
2[2] Issues.
1[3] Should intimate relations be established with France?
2[3] Jay's Treaty with England.

NOTES

Note 1.—Hamilton's Plan. The new government had many difficulties to face. Perhaps the most serious and pressing of these were its debts and its lack of either credit or finance. Alexander Hamilton, whom Washington called to the treasury, had not only the needed knowledge but the boldness, the energy, the convincing power to carry others with him, in his efforts to establish the credit of the new government. Forty years later Daniel Webster said of him, "He smote the rock of national resources, and abundant streams of revenue gushed forth. He touched the dead corpse of Public Credit, and it sprang upon its feet."

When Congress reassembled in January, 1790, Hamilton had his report on the public debt and public credit ready to submit. The recommendations he made in connection with his report provoked heated discussions in Congress. For the purpose of meeting the expenses of the new government, Congress (1789) passed the first tariff law; that is, levied a tax on many foreign goods entering this country. Hamilton advised that the national government assume all the Revolutionary War debt, both foreign and domestic; and, with the surplus arising from the tariff, create a fund with which to pay these debts. No one objected to the National Government's paying the foreign debt; but there was opposition on the part of the Jeffersonians (or Anti-Federalists) to the National Government's assuming the State debts. It was clearly seen by all that the assumption of the State debts would tend to strengthen National Government. As a large part of the state debts were loans from wealthy Americans, these influential citizens would at once become interested in building up

the financial credit and would favor the revenues and taxes which the government might levy. But it was on these grounds that the Anti-Federalists opposed the measure and succeeded in defeating it in Congress. Later, however, (1793) by a bargain with the Anti-Federalists by which the national capital, Washington, was located on the Potomac, enough votes were secured to adopt the measure.

As the tariff did not yield sufficient revenue for the government, an excise tax was levied (1793). Opposition to this measure led to the Whisky Rebellion in Western Pennsylvania, in 1794.

The National Bank was established at Philadelphia (1791) and the United States Mint at the same place (1792). With the establishment of the mint, Congress adopted the decimal system.

Note 2.—Bill of Rights. When the constitution was before the State Legislatures for adoption, it was thought by many that it did not sufficiently safgeuard the civil and religious liberties of the people, and some of the states adopted the national constitution on condition that a Bill of Rights be appended. In all, seventy-eight articles of amendment were proposed. It became the duty of the first Congress to reduce these articles to a suitable number and form to be submitted to the people for ratification. Twelve proposed amendments were submitted. Ten of these were ratified and are known as the Bill of Rights. These amendments set forth certain rights of the people which must be held sacred; as, the right to freedom of religious worship, the right of free speech and of a free press, and the right to bear arms, the right of public meeting, the right to petition the government, the right to a fair trial by jury, and the right to freedom from arbitrary arrest or cruel punishment.

Note 3.—First Census. The census of 1790 showed the population of the United States to be 3,929,827. Of this number 697,897 were negro slaves. The most populous state was Virginia; after which came in order, Pennsylvania, North Carolina, Massachusetts, New York, Maryland, South Carolina, and Connecticut. The center of population was 25 miles east of Baltimore. There were but five towns with a population of more than 10,000. These were Philadelphia, New York, Boston, Charleston, and Baltimore. Since 1790, the population of the United States has doubled on an average every twenty-five years, and the center has moved steadily westward.

Note 4.—Inventions. In 1790, Jacob Perkins of Newburyport, Mass., invented the first practical machine for cutting nails. It was capable of cutting 200,000 nails a day.

In 1774, the English Parliament passed an act which forbade the exportation of machines used in the manufacture of cotton or linen cloth. But Samuel Slater, who had served an apprenticeship in the English mills, set up from memory at Pawtucket, Rhode Island, 1790, the first spinning machine used in this country, perfected after the English type.

Eli Whitney, a school teacher of Massachusetts, moved to Georgia. While watching the servants picking seeds one by one from cotton fiber he was asked why he did not invent a machine with which to do the work. This set Whitney to thinking, and in 1793 he made his first machine which was called the Cotton Gin. With it one could easily clean 300 pounds of cotton a day. The influence of this invention was felt throughout the country. *First*, it revolutionized the production of cotton and made it one of the leading industries of the country. *Second*, our cotton exports were greatly increased. In 1784,

eight bags of cotton sent to Liverpool were seized by the English custom house officers on the ground that the United States could not have produced such an enormous amount. The captain of the vessel was accused of smuggling it from some other country. In 1803 we exported 100,000 bags and in 1860 cotton formed two-thirds of the country's exports. *Third*, it caused the building of cotton mills all over the New England States. One of these, the mill constructed by Francis C. Lowell at Waltham, Massachusetts, 1814, was the first cotton mill in the world in which the raw material was spun into thread, woven into cloth, and printed in colors, all under one roof. A short time before this, Lowell constructed the first loom operated by water power in America. *Fourth*, the area of the cotton plantations was extended far into the uplands of the south and the cultivation of the short-fibered cotton made profitable. *Fifth*, the number of northern slave holders increased and the owners of cotton mills lent their influence for slavery. *Sixth*, the institution of slavery was fastened securely upon the southern states. Slave labor is more profitable in the cultivation of cotton than in any other crop since so large a number of laborers can be worked under one overseer, and there are several stages in the development of the plant in which all the plantation servants can be utilized to good advantage. "In hoeing, picking, and chopping season, women and children and white-haired uncles were as efficient as able-bodied men."

Note 5.—Political Parties. In the Constitutional Convention two parties arose. One of them, the Federalist party, favored granting to the national government a great deal of power to protect the Union; the other, the Anti-Federalist party, believed

in reserving to the states most of their power, lest a despotism be set up. After the adoption of the constitution, the Anti-Federalists disbanded as a party; and to the Federalists, who favored the constitution, was given the task of putting it into operation. Washington was not a strong party man, and he appointed to positions in his cabinet, men who differed in political views. During the first part of his administration there were no clearly defined parties. But the discussions in Congress over some of Hamilton's financial measures soon brought a division of sentiment, and the whole question of the powers granted to the National Congress by the constitution was opened up once more for discussion. Alexander Hamilton, John Adams, and John Jay were the prominent leaders of the Federalists. They believed in a powerful national government in order to keep the union together, and became champions of the "loose construction" theory of the Constitution, holding that Congress had certain powers which, though not expressed, were implied. Thomas Jefferson with his supporters believed that the liberty of the people could best be preserved by strong state governments. They were strict constructionists, holding to the letter of the constitution, and became advocates of the Doctrine of "State's Rights." Jefferson, having recently returned from France where a new party had appeared known as Republican, suggested that the name Anti-Federalist be dropped and the term Democratic Republicans be adopted. (In Jackson's time this party became the Democratic party of today.)

Heated discussions of the principles of government are characteristic of each presidential campaign and give rise to reports which might lead

other nations to think we were on the verge of a civil war. After the election is over, however, the whole country soon settles down to the ordinary vocations of life in the pursuit of the welfare of home and nation, and political antagonists become commercial friends.

These political parties had some ground for fears, and good arguments for many of the principles for which they stood. The existence in this country of two or more political parties has been a blessing to it in that the annual or quadrennial discussion of the principles for which they stand tends to make intelligent citizens, a thing necessary in a republican form of government. The minority party (party not in power), also serves as a balance wheel to the majority party (party in power), and thus better legislation is secured.

2. John Adam's Administration. One term, 1797–1801.
   - 1[1] Inauguration—March 4, 1797.
   - 2[1] Vice President—Thomas Jefferson.
   - 3[1] Party in power—Federal.
   - 4[1] Events having an influence upon Protestant and Republican principles.
     - 1[2] Difficulties with France.
       - 1[3] The French urged the United States to form an alliance with them against the British.
       - 2[3] The President and Congress remained neutral.
       - 3[3] The French assailed American commerce.
       - 4[3] The X Y Z messages, or the embassy to France.
       - 5[3] Hostilities and preparation for war. (The Quasi War.)
       - 6[3] The Directory of France overthrown by Bonaparte. Peace followed.

2[2] The Alien and Sedition Laws passed, 1798.
3[2] Virginia Resolutions adopted, 1798.
4[2] Kentucky Resolutions adopted, 1799.
5[2] Eleventh amendment to the constitution adopted, 1798.
6[2] First direct tax by the general government on lands, houses, and negro slaves, 1798.
7[2] Fries' rebellion in Pennsylvania. Opposition to the direct tax, 1799.
8[2] John Marshall appointed Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States.
9[2] The "Midnight Judges."

5[1] Events of interest unclassified.
1[2] The President's Cabinet.
1[3] Secretary of State—(a) Timothy Pickering, (b) John Marshall.
3[3] Secretary of the Treasury—(a) Oliver Wolcott, (b) Samuel Dexter.
3[3] Secretary of War—(a) James McHenry, (b) Samuel Dexter, (c) Roger Griswold.
4[3] Secretary of the Navy—Benjamin Stoddart. (This department was created and the Secretary made a member of the cabinet, 1799).
5[3] Attorney General—(a) Charles Lee, (b) Theophilus Parsons.
2[1] The "Time of the End," 1798.
3[2] Death of George Washington, 1799.
4[2] The seat of government changed to Washington, 1800.
5[2] Thomas Jefferson the first persident chosen by the House of Representatives.

6[1] Presidential campaign.
1[2] Political parties and candidates.

1^3 Republican—Thomas Jefferson and Aaron Burr.

2^3 Federal—John Adams, and Charles Pinckney.

2^2 Issues.

1^3 The Alien and Sedition Laws.

2^3 Retrenchment in expenditures.

3^3 Internal revenues.

3^2 The election went to the house of representatives. Why?

3. Thomas Jefferson's Administration. Two terms, 1801–1809.

1^1 Inauguration—March 4, 1801.

2^1 Vice Presidents—(a) Aaron Burr, (b) George Clinton.

3^1 Party in power—Republican.

4^1 Events having an influence upon Protestant and Republican principles.

1^2 Repeal of the judiciary law passed in Adam's administration.

2^2 The excise tax was taken from whisky.

3^2 Purchase of Louisiana, 1803.

4^2 Passage of the Twelfth Amendment, 1804.

5^2 Secession threatened by radicals in New England, 1804.

6^2 Tripolitan War, 1801–1806.

7^2 War between England and France involves the United States.

1^3 French and English Blockades. (The Berlin and Milan Decrees and Orders in Council, 1806).

2^3 Passage of the Embargo Act, 1807.

3^3 Firing on the Chesapeake, 1807.

4^3 The Non-intercourse Law was passed, 1809.

8[2] The importation of slaves was forbidden, 1808.

5[1] Events of interest unclassified.

1[2] The President's Cabinet.

1[3] Secretary of State—James Madison.

2[3] Secretary of the Treasury—(a) Samuel Dexter, (b) Albert Gallatin.

3[3] Secretary of War—Henry Dearborn.

4[3] Secretary of the Navy—(a) Benjamin Stoddart, (b) Robert Smith, (c) J. Crowninshield.

5[3] Attorney General—(a) Levi Lincoln, (b) Robert Smith, (c) John Breckinridge, (d) C. A. Rodney.

2[2] First written message sent to Congress, 1801.

3[2] The army and navy reduced.

4[2] The expedition of Lewis and Clarke, 1804.

5[2] The duel between Hamilton and Burr, 1804.

6[2] The trial of Aaron Burr for treason, 1807.

7[2] The steamboat invented by Fulton, 1807.

6[1] Presidential campaign.

1[2] Political parties and candidates.

1[3] Republican—James Madison and George Clinton.

2[3] Federal—Charles Pinckney and Rufus King.

2[2] Issues.

1[3] Embargo Act.

2[3] War with England.

4. James Madison's Administration. Two terms 1809–1817.

1[1] Inauguration—March 4, 1809.

2[1] Vice President—(a) George Clinton, (b) Elbridge Gerry.

3[1] Party in power—Republican.

4[1] Events having an influence on the Protestant and Republican principles
  1[2] Indian troubles in the Northwest
    1[3] Battle of Tippecanoe (1811).
  2[2] War with Great Britain (1812–15)
    1[3] Causes and conditions leading to the war.
      1[4] The right of search of American vessels and impressment of seamen opposed to be of English birth
        1[5] Results of impressment. As the commerce of the United States increased, more warships were built, and wages of seamen rose in a short time from $8.00 to $24.00 per month. Many British seamen deserted their vessels and came to America for higher wages. This led England to claim the right to search.
      2[4] Acts of France and England.
        1 England's control of the Orders in Council (1807–1812).
        2 France's control with Berlin Decrees (1806–1812).
        3 [illegible] Orders in Council.
        4 [illegible] with Milan Decree (1810).
        5 6,000 American seamen were impressed [illegible] ships were confiscated.
        6 Going to the Mediterranean.
        7 Engagement between the vessels President and Little Belt, May 1811.
      3[4] Acts of America.

1[5] Non-importation Act passed April 18, 1806; became operative, Dec. 14, 1807.
2[5] The Embargo Act passed Dec. 22, 1807.
3[5] The Embargo Act Repealed, Feb. 28, 1809.
4[5] Non-intercourse Act, Mar. 1, 1809.
5[5] Non-intercourse Act expired, May 10, 1810, by the passage of Mason Bill.
6[5] Non-intercourse Act re-enacted against Great Britain, Mar. 2, 1811.
7[5] Madison's attempted negotiations.
4[4] Napoleon's double dealing.
5[4] England continued possession of certain western forts and incited the Indians to commit depredations.
6[4] The two political parties.
2[3] Declaration of war, June 18, 1812.
3[3] Operations on the Canada border.
1[4] Invasion of Canada—reasons for.
1[5] Events and Results.
1[6] Detroit, Aug. 15, 1812.
2[6] Queenstown Heights, Oct. 13, 1812.
3[6] Capture of York (Toronto) April 27, 1813.
4[6] Forts George and Niagara, May 27, 1813.
2[5] Operations in and about the Great Lakes.
1[6] Battle of Frenchtown, June 22, 1813.
2[6] Perry's victory on Lake Erie, Sept. 10, 1813.

3[6] Battle of the Thames, Oct. 5, 1813.
4[6] Battle of Chippewa, July 5, 1814.
5[6] Battle of Lundy's Lane, July 25, 1814.
6[6] Battle of Fort Erie, Aug. 15, 1814.

4[3] Naval Battles at Sea.
1[4] Constitution and Guerriere, Aug. 19, 1812.
2[4] Wasp and Frolic, Oct. 18, 1812.
3[4] United States and Macedonia, Oct. 25, 1812.
4[4] Constitution and Java, Dec. 26, 1812.
5[4] Hornet and Peacock, Feb. 24, 1813.
6[4] Enterprise and Boxer, Sept. 5, 1813.
7[4] Chesapeake and Shannon, June 1, 1813.
8[4] Argus and Pelican, Aug. 14, 1813.
9[4] American privateers captured hundreds of British merchant vessels.

5[3] War in the East.
1[4] Battle of Bladensburg, Aug. 24, 1814.
2[4] Burning of the capitol at Washington, April 25, 1814.
3[4] Attack on Fort McHenry, Sept. 13, 1814. (Francis Scott Key wrote the "Star Spangled Banner" on this occasion.)

6[3] Battle of New Orleans, Jan. 8, 1815.
7[3] End of War, Treaty of Ghent.
8[3] Results.
1[4] No mention was made in the treaty of the right of search but no further trouble came of it.
2[4] All conquests restored.

2⁴ England and America agree to a combined effort for the suppression of the slave trade.

4⁴ The war cost the United States, 1,683 vessels, 18,000 sailors and $120,000,000.

5⁴ The American Navy gained prestige.

6⁴ Commercial relations were restored.

7⁴ Home manufactures began to build up.

3² New England opposition to the war.

1³ Cause and nature of the opposition.

2³ The Hartford Convention.

1⁴ State representation.

2⁴ Work of the Convention.

1⁵ Resolutions and remonstrance adopted.

1⁶ Character of, compared with Virginia and Kentucky resolutions.

3⁴ Results.

4² War with Algiers.

1³ Cause and results.

5² Finances.

1³ Direct tax laid, 1813, 1815, 1816.

2³ United States National Bank re-established, 1816.

3³ The first protective tariff, 1816.

1⁴ Attitude of the Republicans toward.

2⁴ Leaders in supporting and in opposing the measure.

6² American Colonization Society organized, 1816.

1³ Purpose and plans.

7[2] President's cabinet.

1[3] Secretary of State—(a) Robert Smith, (b) James Monroe.

2[3] Secretary of the Treasury—(a) Albert Gallatin, (b) A. W. Campbell, (c) A. J. Dallas.

3[3] Secretary of War—(a) William Eustis, (b) John Armstrong, (c) B. W. Crowninshield, (d) William Crawford.

4[3] Secretary of the Navy—(a) Paul Hamilton, (b) William Jones, (c) B. W. Crowninshield.

5[3] Attorney General—(a) C. A. Rodney, (b) William Pinckney, (c) Richard Rush.

5[1] Events of interest unclassified.

1[2] The Rockingham Resolutions.

6[1] Presidential campaign.

1[2] Political parties and candidates.

1[3] Republican—James Monroe and Daniel Tompkins.

2[2] Federal—Rufus King and John E. Howard.

2[2] Issues.

1[3] Not clearly defined.

5. James Monroe's Administration (Era of good feeling). Two terms, 1817–1825.

1[1] Inauguration—March 4, 1817.

2[1] Vice President—Daniel D. Tompkins.

3[1] Party in power—Republican.

4[1] Events having an influence upon Protestant and Republican principles.

1[2] War with the Seminole Indians, 1819.

2[2] The purchase of Florida, 1819.

3[2] Treaty with Spain, ratified by the United States, 1819; by Spain, 1821.

4[2] Missouri Compromise, 1820, and the growth of slavery.
1[3] Authors.
2[3] Provisions.
8[3] Results.
5[2] Republics of South America recognized by the United States.
6[2] The Monroe Doctrine.
1[3] Cause.
2[3] Statement.
3[3] Results.
7[2] The tariff of 1824. (High protection.)
5[1] Events of interest unclassified.
1[2] The President's cabinet.
1[3] Secretary of State—John Quincy Adams.
2[3] Secretary of the Treasury—William H. Crawford.
3[3] Secretary of War—(a) George Graham, (b) John C. Calhoun.
4[3] Secretary of the Navy—(a) B. W. Crowninshield, (b) Smith Thompson, (c) John Rogers, (d) Samuel L. Southard.
5[3] Attorney General—(a) Richard Rush, (b) William Wirt.
2[2] The first steam voyage across the Atlantic Ocean, 1819.
3[2] La Fayette's visit, 1824–1825.
4[2] Financial panic, 1819.
5[2] Work begun on the Erie Canal, 1817.
6[2] John Quincy Adams the second president elected by the House of Representatives.
7[2] Treaty with Russia.
6[1] Presidential campaign.
1[2] Political parties and candidates.
1[3] Southern faction of the Democratic-

Republican — Andrew Jackson and Henry Clay.

2^3 New England faction of the Democratic-Republican—John Quincy Adams and William H. Crawford.

2^2 Issues.

1^3 The campaign was a personal contest.

2^3 Internal improvements.

6. John Quincy Adams' Administration. One term, 1825–1829.

1^1 Inauguration—March 4, 1825.

2^1 Vice President—John C. Calhoun.

3^1 Party in power—National Republican.

4^1 Events having an influence on Protestant and Republican principles.

1^2 Indian affairs in Georgia (involves the question of State rights), 1827.

1^3 Agreement of the general government with Georgia.

2^3 Indian tribes concerned.

1^4 The Creek and the Cherokee.

2^4 Their treaty with the United States.

3^4 Their trouble with Georgia.

3^3 The action of Governor Troup — the doctrine of State sovereignty asserted.

4^3 The outcome and its importance.

2^2 The Panama Congress, 1825–26.

1^3 Purpose of this congress and questions to be discussed.

2^3 The United States invited and why she refused.

3^3 Results.

3^2 The tariff of 1828. (Tariff of Abominations.)

1^3 Character and purpose of the bill.

2^3 Its supporters and opposers.

4. Bill for a Sunday Law and the Senate and the House reports on the same, 1829.

5. Events of interest unclassified.

1. The President's conduct.

1. Secretary of State—Henry Clay.

2. Secretary of the Treasury—Richard Rush.

3. Secretary of War—(a) James Carbour, (b) Peter B. Porter.

4. Secretary of the Navy—Samuel L. Southard.

5. Attorney-General—William Wirt.

2. Corner stone of Bunker Hill Monument laid, June 17, 1825.

1. Laid by La Fayette.

2. Oration by Daniel Webster.

3. Erie Canal opened in October, 1825.

1. Influence of Governor De Wit Clinton of New York.

2. Length, 363 miles; cost $7,000,000.

3. Results.

1. Freight rates from Albany to Buffalo reduced from $88 to $6.50 per ton.

2. Land rose in the West.

4. Death of John Adams and Thomas Jefferson, 1826.

5. Webster's dictionary published.

6. Joseph Smith founded the Mormon religion, 1827.

7. The beginning of rail roads in the United States.

1. Quincy horse rail road, built to haul granite two miles, 1826.

2. Mauch Chunk horse rail road, built in Pennsylvania to haul coal 13 miles, 1827.

3. B. & O. first passenger rail road in America, 1828.
4. First locomotive in the United States, Carbondale and Honesdale, Pa., 1829.

8. Organization of the Anti-Masonic Party.
9. Organization of Temperance Societies.

6. Presidential Campaign.
   1. Political parties and candidates.
      1. Democratic—Andrew Jackson and John C. Calhoun.
      2. National Republican—John Quincy Adams and Richard Rush.
   2. Issues.
      1. Protective Tariff.
      2. National Bank.
      3. Internal Improvements.

7. Andrew Jackson's Administration. Two Terms, 1829–1837.
   1. Inauguration—March 4, 1829.
   2. Vice President—(A) John C. Calhoun, (B) Martin Van Buren.
   3. Party in power—Democratic.
   4. Events having a bearing upon Protestant and Republican principles.
      1. The spoils system. "To the victors belong the spoils." Changes made in the civil service.
         1. Policy of Jackson's predecessors.
         2. Removals made by Jackson and his reasons.
         3. Results.
      2. Independence of Mexico recognized, 1829.
      3. Revenue and Force Bill of 1832, and Compromise Bill of 1833.
      4. State Rights and Nullification.

1[3] The two sections of the country—North and South.
1[4] Contrast their views on slavery, tariff, and internal improvements.
3[3] John C. Calhoun as a leader in the South.
1[4] His theories in regard to the following:
1[5] The right of the general government to pass laws.
2[5] State sovereignty.
3[5] Secession.
4[5] The relation between States.
5[5] Nullification.
3[3] Webster and Hayne debate, 1830.
4[3] Nullification Act of South Carolina, 1832.
1[4] Cause—Protective tariff laws of 1828 and 1832.
2[4] Leaders—Calhoun and Hayne.
3[4] Results—Farragut with naval force sent to South Carolina.
4[4] Constitutional way to nullify acts of congress.
5[4] The Force Bill.
1[5] Provisions of.
5[3] Were the Union and the Constitution strengthened or weakened by these events?
5[2] The Anti-slavery movement, 1831–38.
1[3] The early anti-slavery sentiment.
2[3] William Lloyd Garrison and the "Liberator."
3[3] Formation of Anti-slavery Societies.
4[3] Abolition documents and mails.
5[3] Slavery petitions in Congress.
1[4] The "Gag rule" and its relation to the Constitution.

6[3] Murder of Lovejoy.
7[3] Growth in the North and effect in the South.
6[2] Jackson's war on the United States Bank.
1[3] Expiration of the bank charter.
2[3] Jackson's objection to the bank.
3[3] Supporters of Jackson's views.
4[3] Positions taken by the political parties in the election of 1832.
5[3] Removal of the deposits, 1833.
1[4] Jackson's reasons and his difficulty in removal.
2[4] The "Pet Banks."
3[4] Attitude of the Senate.
4[4] Results.
1[5] Advantages and disadvantages of the United States Bank.
2[5] Increase of state banks.
3[5] Speculation and its results. Apparent prosperity.
4[5] Specie circular issued July 12, 1836.
1[6] Debts to the government must be paid in coin after August 15, 1836.
7[2] Reprisals on French commerce.
1[3] Cause.
1[4] During our war with England 1812–1814, France had preyed upon our commerce. In 1831 she agreed to pay us $5,000,000 damage. On account of delay Jackson ordered reprisals on French commerce.
2[3] Result.
1[4] The debt was immediately paid.
8[2] Indian troubles.

1. The Black Hawk War, 1832.
   1. Cause and results.
2. Organization of the Indian Territory, 1834.
3. The Creek Indians removed to the Indian Territory.
4. Seminole War.
   1. Cause.
   2. Results.

9. Organization of the Mormon Church, 1830.

5. Events of interest unclassified.
   1. The President's cabinet.
      1. Secretary of State—(a) Martin Van Buren, (b) Edward Livingston, (c) Louis McLane, (d) John Forsyth.
      2. Secretary of the Treasury—(a) Samuel D. Ingham, (b) Louis McLane, (c) William J. Duane, (d) Roger B. Taney, Levi Woodbury.
      3. Secretary of War—(a) John H. Eaton, (b) Louis Cass, (c) Benjamin F. Butler.
      4. Secretary of the Navy—(a) John Branch, (b) Levi Woodbury, (c) Mahlon Dickerson.
      5. Postmaster General—(a) William T. Barry, (b) Amos Kendall.
      6. Attorney General—(a) John M. Berrien, (b) Roger B. Taney, (c) Benj. F. Butler.
      7. Jackson's "Kitchen Cabinet."
   2. Postmaster General made a member of the cabinet, 1829.
   3. Resignation of the Vice President, John C. Calhoun, Dec. 28, 1832.
   4. The Meteoric Shower, 1833.

5[2] Mc Cormick's re[illegible]
6[2] The great fire in N[illegible]
7[2] Death of Moor[illegible] 1[illegible]
1836
8[2] Locofoco mat[illegible]
6[1] Presidential cam[illegible]
1[2] Political par[illegible]
1[3] Democratic—[illegible]
Richard Jo[illegible]
2[3] Whig—[illegible]
Francis G[illegible]
2[2] Issues.
1[3] The National B[illegible]
8. Martin Van Buren's Adm[illegible] 1[illegible]
1837–41.
1[1] Inauguration—Ma[illegible]
2[1] Vice President—R[illegible]
3[1] Party in power—D[illegible]
4[1] Events having [illegible]
and Republican pri[illegible]
1[2] The financial pa[illegible]
1[3] Causes.
1[4] The [illegible]
re[illegible]
2[4] Iss[illegible]
me[illegible]
3[4] Wild spec[illegible]
4[4] The s[illegible]
2[3] Events.
1[4] Fa[illegible]
to [illegible]
2[4] Freq[illegible]
bers of m[illegible]
3[4] Banks s[illegible]
4[4] Missis[illegible]
their [illegible]

3[3] Relief measures.
1[4] Attitude of Van Buren.
2[4] Congress ordered $10,000,000. treasury notes to be issued.
2[4] Independent Treasuries or Subtreasuries established, 1840.
1[5] Origin of the system.
2[5] Advantages of the plan.
3[5] Objections to the plan.
2[2] The Canadian Rebellion, 1837–1838.
1[3] The *Carolina* sent over the Niagara Falls. Why?
3[2] Texas applies for admission, 1837.
4[2] Cherokee Indians removed to Indian Territory, 1838.
5[2] The Mormons locate at Nauvoo, Illinois, 1840.
6[2] The Liberty Party organized, 1840.
1[3] Its principles.
5[1] Events of interest unclassified.
1[2] The President's cabinet.
1[3] Secretary of State—John Forsyth.
2[3] Secretary of the Treasury—Levi Woodbury.
3[3] Secretary of War—Joel R. Poinsett.
4[3] Secretary of the Navy—(a) Mahlon Dickerson, (b) James K. Paulding.
5[3] Postmaster General—(a) Amos Kendall, (b) John M. Niles.
6[3] Attorney General—(a) Benj. F. Butler, (b) Felix Grundy, (c) Henry D. Gilpin.
2[2] The magnetic telegraph patented, 1837.
3[2] Murder of Elijah P. Lovejoy, at Alton, Ill., 1837.
4[2] Friction matches first used, 1838.

5[2] Educational progress.
1[3] Growth of common schools and higher education.
2[3] The first Normal school was opened in Massachusetts, 1839.
3[3] Newspapers and their importance.
6[1] Presidential campaign.
1[2] Political parties and candidates.
1[3] Whig—William Henry Harrison and John Tyler.
2[3] Democratic—Martin Van Buren and Richard M. Johnson.
3[3] Liberty—James G. Briney and Francis J. Lemoyne.
2[2] Issues.
1[3] National Bank.
2[3] Protective Tariff.
3[3] Economy of Administration.
4[3] Financial Measures.

9. William Henry Harrison's and John Tyler's Administration. One term, 1841–45.
1[1] Inauguration—March 4, 1841.
2[1] Vice President—John Tyler, one month.
3[1] Party in power—Whig.
4[1] Events having an influence upon Protestant and Republican principles.
1[2] Financial policies and measures.
1[3] Repeal of the subtreasury law, 1841.
2[3] Break between the President and the Whigs, 1841. Cause?
3[3] The passage of a national bankruptcy law, 1841.
4[3] The cabinet officers resign, 1841.
5[3] Tariff of 1842.
1[4] Reasons for.
2[4] Provisions of.

2[2] The Webster and Ashburton Treaty, or Treaty of Washington, 1842.

1[3] Questions settled.

1[4] Boundary lines.

2[4] The right of search formally given up.

3[4] England and the United States pledge their navies to suppress the slave trade.

4[4] Extradition of criminals.

3[2] Dorr's rebellion, 1842.

1[3] Cause and results.

4[2] Trouble with the Mormons in Illinois, 1844.

5[2] Annexation of Texas, 1845.

1[3] History of Texas.

1[4] United States' attempts to buy Texas, 1827, 1829.

2[4] Land grants to Moses Austin.

3[4] Settled from southern states.

4[4] Texas Revolution

5[4] Independence recognized.

6[4] Annexation applied for.

2[3] By whom favored.

3[3] By whom opposed. Why?

4[3] Effect on the North.

6 The anti-rent riots in New York, 1845.

1[2] Causes.

2[2] Events.

1[3] Increase in rent rates.

2[3] The collectors were mobbed and killed.

3[3] Those who paid the rent were persecuted.

3 Results.

7 The Great Advent Movement.

1[2] Outline or diagram the 2300 days.

2[3] The work of Joseph Wolf, William Miller, Joshua V. Himes, and others.

5[1] Events of interest unclassified.

1[2] The President's cabinet.

1[3] Secretary of State—(a) Daniel Webster, (b) Hugh S. Legar, (c) A. P. Upshur, (d) John Nelson, (e) John C. Calhoun.

2[3] Secretary of the Treasury—(a) Thomas Ewing, (b) Walter Forward, (c) John C. Spencer, (d) George M. Bibb.

3[3] Secretary of War—(a) John Bell, (b) John McLean, (c) John Spencer, (d) James M. Porter, (e) Wm. Wilking.

4[3] Secretary of the Navy—(a) G. E. Badger, (b) A. P. Upshur, (c) David Henshaw, (d) T. W. Gilmer, (e) John Y. Mason.

5[3] Postmaster General—(a) Francis Granger, (b) Charles Wickliffe.

6[3] Attorney General—(a) John J. Crittenden, (b) Hugh S. Legar, (c) John Nelson.

2[2] Death of the President, April 4, 1841.

3[2] Tyler took the oath of office, April 6, 1841.

4[2] The first message by telegraph, 1844.

5[2] First commercial treaty with China, 1844.

6[2] Congress fixed Tuesday after the first Monday in November, of years divisible by 4, as the time to hold presidential elections.

6[1] Presidential campaign.

1[2] Political parties and candidates.

1[3] Democratic—James K. Polk and George M. Dallas.

2[3] Whig—Henry Clay and Theodore Frelinghuysen.

3[3] Liberty—James G. Briney and Thomas Morris.

2[2] Issue.

1[3] The annexation of Texas.

10. James K. Polk's Administration. One Term, 1845–49.

1[1] Inauguration—March 4, 1845.

2[1] Vice President—George M. Dallas.

3[1] Party in power—Democratic.

4[1] Events having an influence upon Protestant and Republican principles.

1[2] Four objects the President had to accomplish.

2[2] The Mexican War, 1846–48.

1[3] Causes and preliminary events.

1[4] Texas became an independent nation, 1836, applied for admission to the Union in 1837, and was annexed in 1845.

2[4] A dispute arose over the boundary line between Texas and Mexico.

3[4] The Mexican minister was withdrawn from the United States, March 6, 1845.

4[4] General Taylor was sent to occupy the disputed territory.

5[4] The first blood was shed near Fort Brown where Captain Thornton and party were captured.

6[4] War was declared by the United States, May 13, 1846.

7[4] War war declared by Mexico, May 26, 1846.

2[3] Campaigns of the war.

1[4] General Taylor's march to Mexico from the North. (Army of Occupation.)

1[5] Principal battles and results.

2. General Kearney's attack upon New Mexico. (Army of Acquistion or Conquest.)
   1. Principal battles and results.
3. General Scott's march to the City of Mexico. (Army of Invasion.)
   1. Principal events and results.
4. Capture of California.
   1. Events and results.

3. Results of the war.
   1. Treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo, Feb. 2, 1848.
   2. Boundary line.
   3. Territory acquired by the United States.
   4. Cost of the war.
   5. Influence of the war upon religion.

3. The Wilmot Proviso, 1846.
   1. Nature of.
   2. Principles involved.
   3. Results—beginning of the Free-soil Party.

4. Dispute over the boundary of Oregon, 1844–46.
   1. Territory claimed by each nation and basis of the claims.
   2. Occupation of the country and influence of Marcus Whitman.
   3. The boundary compromised, 1846.

5. The Walker Tariff and the Independent Treasury Act, 1846.
   1. Character and results of the tariff.
      1. Provisions of the Independent Treasury system.

6. The Mormons migrate to Utah, 1847.

7. The rise of Seventh-day Adventists, 1848.

8. The beginning of Modern Spiritualism, 1848.

5[1] Events of interest unclassified.
- 1[2] The President's cabinet.
  - 1[3] Secretary of State—James Buchanan.
  - 2[3] Secretary of the Treasury—Robert J. Walker.
  - 3[3] Secretary of War—William J. Marcy.
  - 4[3] Secretary of the Navy—(a) George Bancroft. (b) John Y. Mason.
  - 5[3] Postmaster General—Cave Johnson.
  - 6[3] Attorney General—(a) John Y. Mason, (b) Nathan Clifford, (c) Isaac Toncey.
- 2[2] The Smithsonian Institute founded, 1846.
- 3[2] Howe Sewing Machine patented, 1846.
- 4[2] Virginia portion of the District of Columbia receded to Virginia, 1846.
- 5[2] Worcester's dictionary published, 1846.
- 6[2] The suspension bridge erected at Niagara, 1846.
- 7[2] Hoe patented the cylinder printing press, 1848.
- 8[2] Gold discovered in California, 1848.
  - 1[3] Vigilance Committees.
- 9[2] Death of J. Q. Adams and Andrew Jackson, 1848
- 10[2] Department of the Interior was created Mar. 3, 1849.
- 11[2] Postage stamps first used in the United States, 1847.

6[1] Presidential campaign.
- 1[2] Political parties and candidates.
  - 1[3] Whig—Zachary Taylor and Millard Fillmore.
  - 2[3] Democratic—Lewis Cass and William O. Butler.
  - 3[3] Free-soil—Martin Van Buren and Francis Adams.

2^2 Issues.

1^3 Free-soil party made slavery its issue.

2^3 The other parties made no positive issue.

3^3 The contest rested upon the popularity of the candidates.

11. Zachary Taylor and Millard Fillmore's Administration. One Term, 1849–53.

1^1 Inauguration—Mar. 5, 1849. Why March 5?

2^1 Vice President — Millard Fillmore, sixteen months.

3^1 Party in power—Whig.

4^1 Events having an influence upon Protestant and Republican principles.

1^2 Invasion of Cuba, 1849–51.

1^3 Leader.

1^4 Lopez.

2^3 Purpose.

1^4 Liberate Cuba from Spain.

3^3 Result.

1^4 The Cubans did not rush to his support as he expected. He was tried for treason and executed.

2^2 Clayton—Bulwer Treaty, between the United States and England.

1^3 It guaranteed the neutrality of interoceanic commercial routes across the Central-American isthmus.

3^2 Omnibus Bill or Compromise of 1850.

1^3 Causes.

2^3 Provisions.

1^4 California was to be admitted as a free state.

2^4 Texas might be divided into states not exceeding four in number. The people of each state were to de-

cide whether that state should be free or slave.

3[1] Texas should be paid $10,000,000 to release her claims on New Mexico.

4[1] Utah and New Mexico were to be organized as territories without mention of slavery.

5[1] The slave trade should be forbidden in the District of Columbia.

6[1] Slaves escaping into free states should be arrested and returned to owners.

7[1] What did each side give up?

3 Results.

1[1] It increased the opposition to slavery.

2[1] It caused the downfall of the Whig party.

3[1] It increased the sentiment for secession.

4[1] The Nashville Convention urged the slave states to secede.

4[2] The "Underground Railroad," 1852.

5[1] Events of interest unclassified.

1[2] The President's cabinet.

1[3] Secretary of State—(a) John M. Clayton, (b) Daniel Webster, (c) Edward Everett.

2[3] Secretary of the Treasury—(a) W. M. Meredith, (b) Thomas Corwin.

3[3] Secretary of War—(a) George W. Crawford, (b) Charles M. Conrad.

4 Secretary of the Navy—(a) Wm. B. Preston, (b) Wm. A. Graham, (c) J. B. Kennedy.

5[3] Secretary of the Interior—(a) Thomas H. Ewing, (b) A. H. H. Stuart.

6. Attorney-General—(a) Reverdy Johnson, (b) J. J. Crittenden.
7. Postmaster-General—(a) Jacob Collamer, (b) Nathan K. Hall, (c) S. D. Hubbard.

2. Death of President Taylor, July 9, 1850.
3. Fillmore inaugurated president, July 10.
4. Congress made its first grant of land to a railroad company—the Illinois Central, 1850.
5. Letter postage reduced to three cents.
6. Death of Calhoun, 1850; Webster and Clay, 1852.
7. "Uncle Tom's Cabin" published, 1852. Influence of the book, then and now.
8. The Prohibition Law passed, 1851.

6. Presidential campaign.
   1. Parties and candidates.
      1. Democratic—Franklin Pierce and William R. King.
      2. Whig—Winfield Scott and William Graham.
      3. Free-soil—John P. Hale and George W. Julian.
   2. Issues.
      1. The Compromise of 1850.

12. Franklin Pierce's Administration. One term, 1853–57.
   1. Inauguration—Mar. 4, 1853.
   2. Vice President—William R. King.
   3. Party in power—Democratic.
   4. Events having a far-reaching influence upon Protestant and Republican principles.
      1. The Gadsden Purchase, 1853.
         1. Reasons for, price, and results.
      2. First treaty with Japan, 1853–54.

1[3] Nature and importance of the treaty.

3[2] The Ostend Manifesto, 1854.

1[3] Cause.

1[4] Desire of the South for more territory.

2[4] The United States attempted to buy Cuba and failed.

3[4] The United States ministers to England, France, and Spain met at Ostend, Belgium, and declared in favor of annexing Cuba to the United States.

2[3] Results.

1[4] European nations opposed the proposition.

4[2] Walker's filibustering expeditions to Central America, 1853–60.

1[3] Causes and results.

5[2] The passage of the Kansas-Nebraska Bill, 1854. ("Squatter's Sovereignty" proposed by S. A. Douglas, the Little Giant.)

1[3] Origin and purpose of the Act.

2[3] Provisions of the Act.

3[3] Relation to the Missouri Compromise.

4[3] Effect in the North and in the South.

5[3] Results.

1[4] Struggle for Kansas, 1853–61.

1[5] Immigration from slave and free territory.

2[5] Kansas election in 1855.

1[6] Character and results.

3[5] The Topeka Convention.

4[5] Civil war in Kansas.

5[5] The Lecompton Constitution and final results, 1857–59.

2[4] Senator Brook's assault upon Senator Sumner.

6[2] Organization of the Know-Nothing or American Party, 1853.
7[2] Organization of the Republican Party, 1854.
1[3] Origin and principles.
2[3] Constituency and growth.
5[1] Events of interest unclassified.
1[2] The President's cabinet.
1[3] Secretary of State—William L. Marcy.
2[3] Secretary of the Treasury—James Guthrie.
3[3] Secretary of War—Jefferson Davis.
4[3] Secretary of the Navy—James C. Dobbin.
5[3] Secretary of the Interior—Robert McClelland.
6[3] Postmaster General—James Campbell.
7[3] Attorney General—Caleb Cushing.
2[2] Death of Vice President King.
6[1] Presidential campaign.
1[2] Political parties and candidates.
1[3] Republican—John C. Fremont and William L. Dayton.
2[3] Democratic—James Buchanan and John C. Breckinridge.
3[3] American ("Know Nothing") Millard Fillmore and Andrew Jackson.
2[2] Issues.
1[3] Expansion of slavery.

13. James Buchanan's Administration. One term, 1857-61.
1[1] Inauguration—Mar. 4, 1857.
2[1] Vice President—John C. Breckinridge.
3[1] Party in power—Democratic.
4[1] Events having an influence upon Protestant and Republican principles.
1[2] The Dred Scott Case, Mar. 6, 1857, by Chief Justice Taney.

1ˢ The nature of the case.
2ˢ The Supreme Court Decision.
1ˢ That slaves were not citizens of the United States.
2ˢ That they could not sue nor be sued in the courts.
3ˢ That they were chattel property.
4ˢ That the Missouri Compromise and the Omnibus Bill were unconstitutional.
3ˢ Effect of this decision.
1ˢ Influence upon the sentiment in the North.
1ˡ It increased and unified sentiment against slavery.
2ˢ Personal-liberty laws were passed by several of the northern States.
2² The Mormon trouble in Utah, 1857.
3² financial Panic, 1857.
1ˢ Causes.
1ˡ Excessive speculation in western lands and railroads.
2ˡ Successive failures in crops.
2ˢ Events.
1ˡ Business companies, corporations, and establishments failed and closed business.
2ˡ Large numbers thrown out of employment.
3ˡ Banks suspend specie payment.
3ˢ Relief measures.
1ˡ Restoration of confidence.
2ˡ Economy in enterprise.
3ˡ A change in the currency.
4ˡ Time to recover.
4² "Helper's Impending Crisis," 1857.

1[3] Author.
2[3] Character and influence of the book.
5[2] Lincoln and Douglas debates, 1858.
1[3] Cause.
2[3] Character.
3[3] Results.
6[2] John Brown's raid, 1859.
1[3] Purpose and plans.
1[4] In Kansas.
2[3] Harper's Ferry.
3[3] Effect.
7[2] The Crittenden Compromise, 1861.
8[2] The Morrill Tariff Bill, 1851.
9[2] The Confederate States of America organized, Feb. 8, 1861.
1[3] Preliminary causes and influences.
1[4] Election of Lincoln.
2[4] Secession of the southern States.
1[5] Reasons for seceding and States which seceded.
2[3] The Confederate Convention.
1[4] Date and place.
1[5] Feb. 4, Montgomery, Ala.
2[4] Measures adopted and officers chosen.
1[5] Compare and contrast their constitution with the constitution of the United States.
3[3] Character of the new government and relation of its principles to Protestantism and Republicanism.
4[3] Advantage given the confederacy during this administration.
10[2] A great religious awakening, 1857.
5[1] Events of interest unclassified.
1[2] The President's cabinet.

1[3] Secretary of State—(a) Lewis Cass, (b) J. S. Black.
2[3] Secretary of the Treasury—(a) Howell Cobb, (b) Philip F. Thomas, (c) John A. Dix.
3[3] Secretary of War—(a) John B. Floyd, (b) Joseph Holt.
4[3] Secretary of the Navy—Isaac Toncey.
5[3] Secretary of the Interior—Jacob Thompson.
6[3] Postmaster General — (a) Aaron V. Brown, (b) Joseph Holt, (c) Horatio King.
7[3] Attorney General—(a) J. S. Black, (b) E. M. Stanton.

2[2] Laying of the Atlantic Cable, 1857–58.
3[2] Death of William H. Prescott, Rufus Choate, Horace Mann, and Washington Irving, 1861.

6[1] Presidential campaign.
1[2] Political parties and candidates.
1[3] Republican—Abraham Lincoln and Hannibal Hamlin.
2[3] Northern Democrats—Stephen A. Douglas and Herschel V. Johnson.
3[3] Southern Democrats—John C. Breckinridge and Joseph Lane.
4[3] Constitutional Union—John Bell and Edward Everett.

2[2] Issues.
1[3] Constitutional right of Congress to prohibit slavery in the territories.
2[3] Extension of slave territory and "Squatter's Sovereignty." ("Local Option").
3[3] The Constitution, the Union, and the enforcement of law.

Dates of the Secession of the Southern States.

1. South Carolina, Dec. 10, 1860.
2. Mississippi, Jan. 9, 1861.
3. Florida, Jan. 10, 1861.
4. Alabama, Jan. 11, 1861.
5. Georgia, Jan. 18, 1861.
6. Louisiana, Jan. 26, 1861.
7. Texas, Feb. 1, 1861.
8. Virginia, April 18, 1861.
9. Arkansas, May 6, 1861.
10. Tennessee, May 7, 1861.
11. North Carolina, May 20, 1861.

14. Abraham Lincoln's Administration. One term and 44 days, 1861-65.
   1[1] Inauguration—March 4, 1861.
   2[2] Vice President—Hannibal Hamlin.
   3[1] Party in power—Republican.
   4[1] Events having an influence upon Protestant and Republican principles.
      1[2] The Civil War. 1861-65. (See Special Outline.)
      2[2] The Sioux Indian War, 1862.
      3[2] Government finances.
         1[3] Plans for raising money to carry on the war.
            1[4] A Protective Tariff.
               1[5] The tariff was raised several times during 1861.
            2[4] The sale of United States bonds, 5—20's and 10—40's.
            3[4] Interest-bearing treasury notes issued, 1861.
            4[4] Non-interest-bearing, "legal tender" notes or greenbacks issued, 1862. $300,000,000.

5. The Bank Act, 1863.
   1. Its purpose.
   2. Its importance.
6. Direct taxes and excises or Internal Revenue.
   1. A tax placed on manufactured articles, trades, occupations, carriages, etc.
   2. Incomes and salaries were taxed.
      1. A tax of 5 per cent on the excess of $600.
      2. A tax of 10 per cent on the excess of $10,000.
   3. A stamp duty on all legal documents.

4. Confederate finances.
   1. The Confederate war debt was never paid.

5. Emancipation of the slaves.
   1. Lincoln's slave policy in 1861 as stated in his inaugural address.
   2. Growth of abolition sentiment in the North.
   3. Abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia, West Virginia, and the Territories.
   4. Slaves as contraband of war.
   5. The Emancipation Proclamation.
      1. Its purpose and on what event dependent.
      2. Lincoln's authority to issue.
      3. Time of making the proclamation.
      4. Results.
6. The Reformed Presbyterian Church took the initial steps which led to the organization

of the National Reform Association, Feb. 3, 1863.

7[2] The National Reform Association organized, Jan. 27, 1861.

8[2] Passage of the Homestead Act, 1862.

9[2] Creation of West Virginia, 1863.

1[3] Constitutionality of the act.

2[3] Why did not these counties of Virginia share the secession sentiment?

10[2] Abraham Lincoln assassinated, April 14, 1865, forty-four days after his second inauguration.

11[2] Lewis Payne Powell's attack on Secretary Seward, April 14, 1865.

5[1] Events of interest unclassified.

1[2] The President's cabinet.

1[3] Secretary of State—William H. Seward.

2[3] Secretary of the Treasury—(a) Salmon P. Chase, (b) W. P. Fessenden.

3[3] Secretary of War—(a) Simon Cameron, (b) E. M. Stanton.

4[3] Secretary of the Navy—Gideon Welles.

5[3] Secretary of the Interior—(a) Caleb P. Smith, (b) John P. Usher.

6[3] Postmaster General—(a) Montgomery Blair, (b) William Dennison.

7[3] Attorney General—(a) Edward Bates, (b) Titian J. Coffee, (c) James Speed.

2[2] Death of Stephen A. Douglas, June 3, 1861.

3[2] The Gatling gun invented, 1861.

4[2] Bureau of Agriculture established, 1862.

5[2] First issue of greenbacks, February, 1863.

6[2] Free mail delivery in the United States, Jan., 1863.

7[2] Postal money-order system established, 1864.

8[2] Union Pacific Railway begun, 1863.

6[1] Presidential campaign. (Close of Lincoln's first term.)
1[2] Political parties and candidates.
1[3] Republican—Abraham Lincoln and Andrew Johnson.
2[3] Democratic—George B. McClellan and George H. Pendleton.
2[2] Issues.
1[3] War measures.

Special Outline

1. The Civil War, 1861–1865.
1[1] Causes and events leading to the war.
1[2] Slavery—What is its moral influence?
1[3] The beginning of African slavery in America, 1619.
2[3] Differences between the North and the South among the people and their systems of labor.
1[4] Responsibility of each section for the continuance of slavery.
3[3] Lack of intercourse between the North and the South.
4[3] Ordinance of 1787 and later increase of territory.
5[3] Slavery in the Constitutional Convention.
6[3] Different constructions placed upon the meaning of the constitution.
7[3] Abolition societies.
8[3] Fugitive slave laws, 1793, 1850.
1[4] Their character and tendency. See *Testimonies for the Church, Vol. 1. page 264.*
9[3] Influence of the cotton gin.

10[3] Laws restricting the slave trade, 1808, 1820, 1842.
11[3] Missouri Compromise, 1820.
12[3] Annexation of Texas, 1845.
13[3] Wilmot Proviso, 1846.
14[3] The Omnibus Bill, 1850.
15[3] The Kansas-Nebraska Bill, 1854.
16[3] Dred Scott Decision, 1857.
17[3] Personal Liberty Bills, 1857–1859.
18[3] John Brown's Raid, 1859.
19[3] Anti-slavery parties.
1[4] Liberty.
2[4] Free-Soil.
3[4] Republican.
20[3] Sectional books, papers, and speeches.
2[2] States' Rights Doctrine.
1[3] Tariff legislation.
2[3] Nullification.
3[3] Secession.
3[2] The Election of 1860.
1[3] Secession of the southern states.
2[1] Strength and preparations for war—the North and the South compared and contrasted.
1[2] Population and wealth.
2[2] Position, equipment, and supplies.
3[2] Union of sentiment.
4[2] Ability to manufacture army supplies.
5[2] Railroad and commercial advantages.
6[2] Patriotism, bravery, and endurance.
3[1] Causes of weakness in the North.
1[2] Plans and management of Buchanan's administration. See *Testimonies*, *Vol. 1*, *page 253*.
1[3] Location of military stores and supplies.
2[3] National troops at remote points.
2[2] False ideas concerning the South.

1[3] That the South would not leave the Union.
2[3] That the seceded states would return to the Union with apologies.
3[3] The strength of the system of slavery was unknown.
3[2] The North was too slow and too forbearing to take measures against the South.
1[3] Results—Many joined the Confederacy who otherwise would not have done so.
4[2] Object of the war, on the part of the North. —*Testimonies Vol. 1, page 254;* Lincoln's First Inaugural Address.
5[2] Condition and character of leading men in Congress and in the army.
1[3] Cause of their fears.
2[3] Days of fasting and prayer.
3[3] The American spirit and its results.
4[1] Attitude of foreign nations.
1[2] Russia.
2[2] France.
3[2] Spain.
4[2] England.
1[3] Her ambition.
2[3] Her fears.
3[3] Her astonishment.
4[3] Influence of the English press.
5[3] Influence of the commercial class.
6[3] The masses of the English people.
7[3] Why did the South expect aid from England?
8[3] The "Trent Affair," 1861.
5[1] Changes in war policies and purposes of the North.
1[2] Causes.
2[2] Emancipation Proclamation.

3[2] Legislative Acts concerning the slaves.
4[2] Lincoln's inaugural address.
5[2] Results.
6[1] Fields of operation, or centers and campaigns of the war.
1[2] The two natural divisions made by the mountains.
1[3] Geography of each section.
2[3] Lines of fortification and defense.
7[1] General plan of the war.
1[2] On the part of the North.
1[3] To blockade all the southern ports and thus prevent the Confederacy from securing aid from abroad and from transporting supplies from one state to another along the coast.
2[3] To hold the border slave states not yet seceded.
3[3] To open the Mississippi River. Purpose.
1[4] To cut the Confederacy in twain.
2[4] To prevent the South from using the river to transport their armies and supplies.
3[4] That the North might more easily penetrate the South.
4[3] To keep a strong army in the region of the Potomac for the defense of Washington and the capture of Richmond, the capital of the Confederacy.
5[3] To make a second division of the Confederacy by capturing a line of fortifications from western Kentucky, up the Cumberland and Tennessee Rivers, thence through Georgia to the Atlantic coast.
2[2] On the part of the Confederacy.

1[3] Inasmuch as the field of the war was the southern states, the Confederacy was kept busy in a defensive warfare but their plans may be said to include:
1[4] Recognition and aid from foreign nations.
2[4] Save Richmond and capture Washington.
3[4] Get control of the border slave states.
4[4] Hold control of the Mississippi River.
5[4] Transfer the war to the North.

8[1] Principal battles, campaigns, and officers.
Union officers' names appear first. Victory indicated by initial letter, **U.** for Union, **C.** for Confederate, **I.** for indecisive.

1[2] Fort Sumter, S. C., April 12, 1861. **C.**
1[3] Anderson—Beauregard.

2[2] Blockade of the Confederate ports, and naval battles.
1[3] The blockade ordered, April 19, 1861.
2[3] Capture of Hatter's Inlet, Aug. 29, 1861. **U.**
3[3] Blockade runners.
1[4] The Trent Affair, Nov., 1861.
4[3] Capture of Port Royal, S. C., Nov. 27, 1861. **U.**
5[3] Battle between the *Monitor* and the *Merrimac*, off the coast of Virginia, March 9, 1862. **U.**
6[3] The Kearsarge sank the Alabama near the coast of France, June 19, 1864. **U.**
7[3] Mobile, Ala., taken, Aug. 5, 1864. **U.**
1[4] Land and naval forces united.
8[3] Capture of Fort Fisher, Jan. 15, 1865. **U.**

3[2] For control of the border states.
1[3] In West Virginia.
1[4] Rich Mountain, July 10, 1861. **U.**

1^{5} McClellan—Pegram.
2^{4} Carrick's Ford, July 13, 1861. **U.**
1^{5} Morris—Garrett.
2^{3} In Missouri.
1^{4} Wilson Creek, Aug. 10, 1861. **C.**
1^{5} Lyon—McCulloch.
3^{3} Bragg's invasion of Kentucky.
1^{4} Kirby Smith sent to threaten Cincinnati, Ohio.
2^{4} Battle of Perryville, Oct. 8, 1862. **U.**
3^{4} Bragg retreated to Murfreesboro, Tenn.
4^{3} Bragg's campaign in Tennessee.
1^{4} His army reinforced by Johnston and Longstreet.
2^{4} Battle of Chickamauga, Sept. 19, 20, 1863. **C.**
1^{5} Rosecrans—Bragg.
3^{4} Union army surrounded at Chattanooga.
4^{4} Grant, Sherman, and Hooker arrive with reinforcements. Grant takes command, Oct. 23.
5^{4} Siege of Chattanooga.
1^{5} Battle of Orchard Knob, Nov. 23, 1863. **U.**
2^{5} Battle of Lookout Mountain, ("Battle above the clouds"), Nov. 24, 1863. **U.**
1^{6} Hooker—Bragg.
3^{5} Battle of Missionary Ridge, Nov. 25, 1863. **U.**
6^{4} Bragg retreats to the south.
4^{2} Efforts to transfer the war to the North.
1^{3} Lee's first invasion of the North.

1[4] Battle of Cedar Mountain, Aug. 9, 1862. **C.**
1[5] Banks—Lee.
2[4] Battle of Bull Run, Aug. 29, 30, 1862. **C.**
1[5] Pope—Lee.
3[4] South Mountain Pass, Sept. 14, 1862. **U.**
4[4] Harper's Ferry taken by Jackson, Sept. 14, 1862. **C.**
5[4] Battle of Antietam, Md., Sept. 17, 1862. **U.**
1[5] McClellan—Lee.
2[5] Results.
1[6] Lee's retreat.
2[6] Emancipation Proclamation.
6[4] Battle of Fredericksburg, Dec. 31, 1862. **C.**
1[5] Burnside—Lee.
2[3] Lee's second invasion of the North.
1[4] March down the Shenandoah valley.
2[4] Battle of Gettysburg, July 1–4, 1863. **U.**
1[4] Meade, the successor of Hooker—Lee.
3[3] Morgan's raid in Ohio and Indiana, July, 1863.
1[4] At first successful, then captured.
4[3] Quantrell's raid in Kansas, August, 1863. **C.**
5[2] For the opening of the Mississippi River. (The first dividing of the Confederacy.)
1[3] Island No. 10, April 7, 1862. **U.**
1[4] Foote and Pope—Makall.
2[3] Battle of New Orleans, April 28, 1862. **U.**

1[4] Farragut—Lovel and Duncan.

3[3] Capture of Fort Pillow, April 13, 1862. **C.**

1[4] Forrest—Bradford.

2[4] Retaken by the Union army, May 10, 1862. **U.**

4[3] Memphis taken by Colonel Fitch, June 6, 1862. **U.**

5[3] Attack upon Vicksburg, Dec. 28, 1862. **C.**

1[4] Sherman and Grant—Pemberton.

6[3] Grierson's cavalry raid from Lagrange, Tennessee to Baton Rouge, Louisiana, April 17 to May 2, 1863. **U.**

7[3] Battle of Port Gibson, May 1, 1863. **U.**

1[4] Porter—Bowen.

8[3] Battle of Raymond, May 9, 1863. **U.**

1[4] McPherson—Gregg.

9[3] Battle of Jackson, Miss., May 12, 1863. **U.**

1[4] McPherson—Johnston.

10[3] Battle of Champion Hills, May 16, 1863. **U.**

1[4] Hovey and Crocker of McPherson's army—Tilghman.

11[3] Siege of Vicksburg, six weeks, May 19 to July 4, 1863. **U.**

1[4] Grant—Pemberton.

12[3] Unsuccessful attempts to take Port Hudson, April 12 to June 14, 1863. **C.**

1[4] Banks—Gardner.

13[3] Unconditional surrender of Port Hudson, July 8, 1863. **U.**

1[4] Banks—Gardner.

6[2] For the defense of Washington and the capture of Richmond.

1[3] Riot in Baltimore, April 19, 1861. (First bloodshed of the war.)
2[3] Union troops occupy Alexandria and Arlington Heights, May 23, 1861.
3[3] Battle of Bull Run, July 12, 1861. **C.**
  1[4] McDowell—Beauregard.
  2[4] Effects.
    1[5] Aroused the North.
    2[5] Filled the South with hope and courage.
4[3] Yorktown taken, May 3, 1862. **U.**
5[3] Battle of Williamsburg, May 4, 1862. **U.**
6[3] Battle of Fair Oaks and Seven Pines, May 31, 1862. **U.**
  1[4] McClellan—Johnston.
7[3] "Stonewall" Jackson's raid in the Shenandoah Valley. **C.**
  1[4] Battle of Winchester, March 22, 1862. **C.**
8[3] Stuart's cavalry raid around McClellan.
9[3] Seven Days' Battle, June 26, to July 1, 1862. **I.**
  1[4] McClellan—Lee.
  2[4] Battle of Mechanicsville, June 26, **U.**
  3[4] Battle of Gaines's Mill, June 27, 1862. **C.**
  4[4] Battle of Savage Station, June 30, 1862. **I.**
  5[4] Battle of Glendale, or Frazier's Farm, June 30. **I.**
  6[4] Battle of Malvern Hill, July 1, 1862. **U.**
10[3] McClellan withdrew to Harrison's Landing.
11[3] Battle of Chancellorsville, May 1–4, 1862. **I.**

1[4] Hooker—Lee.

12[3] Grant's Campaign against Richmond.

1[4] Battle of the Wilderness, May 5–7, 1864. **I.**

1[5] Grant—Lee.

2[4] Spottsylvania Court House, May 8–12, 1864. **I.**

1[5] Grant—Lee,

3[4] Battle of Cold Harbor, June 1–3, 1864. **I.**

1[5] Grant—Lee.

4[4] Attack upon Petersburg, June 18–30, 1864. **C.**

1[5] Petersburg Mine.

5[4] Battle of Steadman, Aug. 18, 1864. **U.**

1[5] Grant—Lee.

13[3] Early's campaign, 1864, planned by Lee to threaten Washington in order to save Richmond.

1[4] "Sheridan's Ride."

2[4] Battle of Winchester, Sept. 19, 1864. **U.**

1[5] Sheridan—Early.

3[4] Battle of Cedar Creek, Oct. 19, 1864. **U.**

1[5] Sheridan—Early.

4[4] Early totally defeated at Waynesboro, March 2, 1865. **U.**

1[5] Sheridan—Early.

5[4] Sheridan joined Grant's army, March 16, 1865.

7[2] Campaign through the southern states. (The second dividing of the Confederacy.)

1[3] Capture of Fort Henry by Grant, Feb. 6, 1862. **U.**

1[3] Surrender of Fort Donelson, Feb. 6, 1862. **U.**
  1[4] Grant—Floyd.
  2[4] Results.
    1[5] Bowling Green and Columbus evacuated. **U.**
    1[5] Union troops occupy Nashville.
3[3] Batttle of Shiloh or Pittsburg Landing, April 6, 7, 1862. **U.**
  1[4] Grant—Johnston.
4[3] Battle of Corinth, May 30, 1862. **U.**
5[3] Battle of Iuka, Sept. 9, 1862. **U.**
6[3] Sherman supesedes Grant in the West, March 12, 1864.
7[3] Sherman's campaign.
  1[4] Advance toward Atlanta, May 15 to July.
    1[5] Battle of Resaca. **U.**
    2[5] Battle of Dallas. **U.**
    3[5] Battle of Kenesaw Mountain. **U.**
  2[4] Hood superseded Johnston, July 17, 1864.
  3[4] Battles around Atlanta.
    1[5] Hood makes three determined attacks upon Sherman, July 20, 22, 28, 1864. **U.**
  4[4] Siege of Atlanta, July 28 to Sept. 2, 1864. **U.**
  5[4] Sherman entered Atlanta, Sept. 2.
  6[4] Hood's march to Nashville. General Thomas sent after him.
    1[5] Battle of Franklin Nov. 30, 1864. **U.**
    2[5] Hood driven out of Nashville, Dec. 16, 1864. **U.**
  7[4] Sherman's "March to the Sea."

1[5] Purpose.
2[5] Capture of Fort McAllister. **U.**
3[5] Savannah taken.

8[2] Closing campaigns of the war.
1[3] Grant takes Richmond and forces Lee to surrender.
1[4] Battle of Five Forks, April 1, 1865. **U.**
2[4] Lee abandons Petersburg and Richmond, Apr. 3.
4[4] Lee surrenders to Grant at Appomattox Court House, April 9, 1865.
2[3] Sherman's campaign through the Carolinas.
1[4] Columbia taken. **U.**
2[4] Charleston evacuated, Feb. 17, 1865. **U.**
3[4] Battle of Bentonville, March 9, 1865. **U.**
4[4] Battle of Raleigh, April 13, 1865. **U.**
5[4] Johnston surrendered to Sherman, April 28, 1865.

9[1] Results of the War.
1[2] Good results.
1[3] The Union was preserved a single nation.
2[3] The right of the states to secede was disproved.
3[3] Slavery abolished, nearly 4,000,000 slaves emancipated.
2[2] Evil results.
1[3] More than 1,000,000 men killed or wounded.
2[3] A war debt of about $2,750,000,000 was created.
3[3] The amount of personal property destroyed is beyond estimate.

4[3] No pen has ever pictured the suffering on the part of the wives and children who kept the homes while their loved ones were in the war.

5[3] The influence of greedy and disappointed politicians both North and South who took advantage of the ignorance of the freed-men and of the general condition of the South for personal profit.

15. Andrew Johnson's Administration.—One term less 44 days, 1865–69.

1[1] Inauguration—April 15, 1865.

2[1] Vice President—None.

3[1] Party in power—Republican.

4[1] Events having an influence upon Protestant and Republican principles.

1[2] President Johnson's Amnesty Proclamation, May 29, 1865.

1[3] Unconditional pardon granted to all participants in the rebellion except leaders. Effective Sept. 7, 1865.

2[2] The Thirteenth Amendment to the national constitution adopted, Dec. 18, 1865.

3[2] The President's Reconstruction Policy.

1[3] The President held that the seceded States were not out of the Union.

2[3] Provisional or temporary governors should be appointed to call conventions of delegates elected by white people.

3[3] These conventions were to

1[4] Repeal their ordinances of secession.

2[4] Repudiate the Confederate debt.

3[4] Ratify the Thirteenth Amendment.

4[3] Compliance with these requirements should give full political rights.

4[2] The Reconstruction Policy of Congress.

1[3] Congress held that the seceded states were out of the Union.

2[3] Military governors should be placed over the seceded states, these governors to call conventions to form new state governments.

3[3] Power to vote for delegates to these conventions should be given to freedmen but not to leading Confederates.

4[3] The States should declare void their Confederate debt.

5[3] The new state governments should allow freedmen to vote and ratify the Constitutional Amendments with respect to the freedman.

6[3] Congress passed its Reconstruction Act over the President's veto.

5[2] Freedmen's Bureau established, Feb., 1866.

6[2] Civil Rights Bill passed over President's veto, April, 1866.

7[2] The Tenure-of-Office Act, and Impeachment of the President, 1867–8.

1[3] Reasons for.

1[4] The President had removed from office many officials not favorable to his policy.

2[3] Provisions of.

1[4] It provided that offices filled by appointment of the President with the concurrence of the Senate could not be vacated by President without the consent of the Senate.

3[3] Results.

1[4] When the President removed Secretary Stanton from his position in the Cabinet, the House of Representa-

tives impeached him before the bar of the Senate.

2[4] Result of the impeachment trial.

1[5] The Senate acquitted Johnson by a vote of 35 for conviction and 19 for acquittal.

3[4] The law was repealed, May 18, 1868.

8[2] Bureau of Education established, 1867.

9[2] The purchase of Alaska from Russia for $7,200,000, 1867.

1[3] Reasons for the purchase.

10[2] The Fourteenth Amendment to the national constitution adopted, 1868.

11[2] The "carpet bag" government and the "iron-clad oath."

12[2] Organization of the Ku-Klux-Klan, 1868.

13[2] The Burlington Treaty with China, 1868.

14[2] The French in Mexico.

1[3] Action of the United States—the Monroe Doctrine.

5[1] Events of interest unclassified.

1[2] The President's cabinet.

1[3] Secretary of State—Wm. H. Seward.

2[3] Secretary of the Treasury—Hugh McCullock.

3[3] Secretary of War—(a) E. M. Stanton, (b) U. S. Grant, (c) E. M. Stanton, (d) J. M. Schofield.

4[3] Secretary of the Navy—Gideon Welles.

5[3] Secretary of the Interior—(a) J. P. Usher, (b) James Harlan, (c) O. H. Browning.

6[3] Postmaster-General—(a) Wm. Dennison, (b) A. W. Randall.

7[3] Attorney General—(a) James Speed, (b) (b) Henry Stanberry, (c) O. H. Browning, (d) W. M. Evarts.

2^2 Capture and punishment of the Lincoln assassins.

1^3 John Wilkes Booth shot by Boston Corbett, April 26, 1865.

2^3 Mrs. Mary Surratt, D. E. Harrold, George A. Atzerott, and Powell were tried and executed.

2^2 Capture of Jefferson Davis, May 11, 1865.

1^3 It was at first supposed that Davis and a number of the leading Confederates were implicated in the assassination plot. President Johnson offered $100,000 for the capture of Davis.

2^3 He was kept a prisoner at Fortress Monroe for two years.

3^3 He was charged with treason, but never tried.

4^3 He died at New Orleans, Dec. 6, 1889.

4^2 Atlantic Cable was laid, 1866.

5^2 The completion of the Pacific Railroad, 1869.

6^1 The Presidential campaign.

1^2 Political parties and candidates.

1^3 Republican — Ulysses S. Grant and Schuyler Colfax.

2^3 Democratic—Horatio Seymour and Francis P. Blair.

2^2 Issues.

1^3 Negro suffrage and relations with the seceded states.

16. Ulysses S. Grant's Administration. Two terms, 1869–77.

1^1 Inauguration—March 4, 1869.

2^1 Vice President—(a) Schuyler Colfax, (b) Henry Wilson.

3[1] Party in power—Republican.
4[1] Events having an influence upon Protestant and Republican principles.
1[2] The ratification of the Fifteenth Amendment, 1870.
2[2] Attempt to annex San Domingo to the United States, 1870.
1[3] Commissioners were appointed by the President to make investigation and report on the advisability of annexing the island. The Commission and the President favored annexation, but the Senate rejected the proposition.
3[2] The Treaty of Washington, 1871.
1[3] Causes.
1[4] The dispute over the fisheries and the water boundary on the northwest.
2[4] The United States claimed damages from war vessels built in England for the Confederate States (The Alabama claims).
2[3] Provisions.
1[4] The boundary dispute was referred to the Emperor of Germany, who decided in favor of the United States.
2[4] The "Alabama Claims" were referred to five arbitrators, one each from England, United States, Italy, Brazil, and Switerland. This commission, called the Geneva Arbitration or Tribunal, met at Geneva, 1872, and by a vote of 4 to 1 agreed that Great Britain should pay the United States $15,500,000.00.
3[4] The question of damages done by the United States to the British fisheries

was settled by three arbitrators, one appointed by the President, one by the Queen, and a third by the Austrian ambassador at the court of St. James. The United States paid $5,500,000.00.

4[2] The Credit Mobilier investigation, 1872.

1[3] The Credit Mobilier was a joint stock company, organized for the construction of public works. The Union Pacific Railroad was built by this Company. With large grants of land from Congress and "watered" stock the company paid enormous dividends to the stockholders. In 1872 a lawsuit in Pennsylvania developed the fact that much of the stock was owned by members of Congress. Congress ordered an investigation which resulted in the censure of James Brooks and Oakes Ames.

5[2] Demonetization of silver, 1873.

6[2] Financial panic, 1873–1879.

1[3] Causes.

1[4] Fabulous prices caused by war.

2[4] Extravagance in speculation.

3[4] Uncertain conditions of monetary affairs.

2[3] Events.

1[4] Business failures in every section.

2[4] Reduction of wages.

3[4] Strikes and labor trouble.

3[3] Relief measures.

1[4] Repeal of the Bankruptcy Act.

2[4] Passage of the Specie Resumption Act, 1875.

1[5] Went into effect Jan. 1, 1879,

3[4] It required time, business confidence, economy, and industry.

7[2] Civil Service Reform Bill or Salary Act, 1873.

8[3] The Cuban question—Trouble with Spain, 1873.

9[3] Organization of the W. C. T. U. at Cleveland, Ohio, Nov. 18–20, 1874.

10[2] Joint High Commission or Electoral Commission, 1877.

1[3] Because of double returns from Oregon, South Carolina, and Louisiana, both Democrats and Republicans claimed the election of President.

2[8] The contest was referred to 5 Senators, 5 Representatives, and 5 Supreme Court Judges. Of this Commission of fifteen, seven were Republicans, seven Democrats, and one independent.

3[5] Eight members voted to count the electoral vote for Hayes, and seven for Tilden. The result was announced March 2, 1877.

11[2] Indian troubles.

1[3] The Modoc Indian War, 1873.

2[3] The Sioux Indian War, 1876–77.

1[4] The massacre of General Custer and his men.

12[2] Rival governments in Louisiana, 1874, 1875.

5[1] Events of interest unclassified.

1[2] The President's Cabinet.

1[3] Secretary of State—(a) E. B. Washburn, (b) Hamilton Fish.

2[3] Secretary of the Treasury—(a) Geo. S.

Boutwell, (b) W. A. Richardson, (d) Lot M. Morrill.

3[3] Secretary of War—(a) John A. Rowlins, (b) Wm. T. Sherman, (c) W. W. Belknap, (d) Alphonso Taft, (e) J. D. Cameron.

4[3] Secretary of the Navy—(a) Adolph Borie, (b) George M. Robeson.

5[3] Secretary of the Interior—(a) Jacob D. Cox, (b) Columbus Delano, (c) Zachariah Chandler.

6[3] Postmaster General—(a) J. A. J. Creswell, (b) Marshall Jewell, (c) James M. Tyner.

7[3]Attorney General—(a) E. R. Hoar, (b) Amos T. Akerman, (c) George H. Williams, (d) Edward Pierrepont, (e) Alphonso Taft.

2[2] The Chicago fire, 1871; and Boston fire, 1872.

3[2] The invention of the telephone, 1873–7.

4[2] The Centennial Exposition, 1876.

5[2] Simultaneous invention of the telephone by Mr. Bell and Mr. Gray, 1876.

6[2] The Ring Robberies in New York and other cities.

7[2] International Bridge opened at Niagara Falls, 1873.

8[2] Death of prominent men.

1[3] Edwin M. Stanton, 1869.

2[3] David G. Farragut, 1870.

3[3] Robert E. Lee, 1870.

4[3] Samuel F. B. Morse, 1872.

5[3] Willian H. Seward, 1872.

6[3] George G. Meade, 1872.

7[3] Horace Greeley, 1872.

8[3] Salmon B. Chase, 1873

9[3] Chas. Sumner, 1874.
10[3] Andrew Johnson, 1875.
11[3] Henry Wilson, 1875.

6[1] Presidential Campaign.
1[2] Political parties and candidates.
1[3] Republican—R. B. Hayes and Wm. Wheeler.
2[3] Democratic—Samuel J. Tilden and Thos. A. Hendricks.
3[3] Greenback—Peter Cooper and Samuel T. Carey.
4[3] Prohibition—G. C. Smith and R. G. Stewart.
5[2] Issues.
1[3] The Southern policy.
2[3] Resumption of specie payments.
3[3] Reform in public service.

17. Rutherford B. Hayes's Administration. One term, 1877–1881.
1[1] Inauguration—March 5, 1877.
2[1] Vice President—William A. Wheeler.
3[1] Party in power—Republican.
4[1] Events having an influence upon Protestant and Republican principles
1[2] Railroad Strikes, 1877.
1[3] Cause and extent—Reduction of wages. It extended from the Atlantic to the Pacific.
2[3] Events and Results.
1[4] Railroad property of all kinds burned and destroyed.
2[4] A hundred lives lost.
3[4] United States troops sent to quell the riots.
4[4] The strikers lost.
2[2] Financial Problems.

1[3] The Bland—Allison Act, 1877—Remonetization of silver.

1[4] Provisions.

1[5] Secretary of the Treasury was required to coin not less than 2,000,000 nor more than 4,000,000 silver dollars per month of 412½ gr. each.

2[5] Silver certificates were issued to circulate in place of the silver dollars, which were deposited in the United States Treasury.

2[4] Results.

1[5] $378,166,793 were coined under this act.

2[5] This law was repealed in 1890 by the Sherman Act.

2[3] The resumption of specie payments, Jan. 1, 1879.

3[2] Civil Service Reform, 1877.

4[2] The Negro Exodus, 1879.

5[2] Conflict between the President and Congress.

1[3] Character of.

2[3] The President's vetoes—his reasons.

6[2] Treaty with China, 1880.

7[2] Rival governments in South Carolina and Georgia, 1877.

5[1] Events of interest unclassified.

1[2] The President's Cabinet.

1[3] Secretary of State—William M. Evarts.

2[3] Secretary of the Treasury—John Sherman.

3[3] Secretary of War—(a) George W. McCrary, (b) Alexander Ramsey.

4[3] Secretary of the Navy—(a) R. W. Thompson, (b) Nathan Goff, Jr.
5[3] Secretary of the Interior—Carl Schurz.
6[3] Postmaster-General—(a) David M. Key, (b) Horace Maynard.
7[3] Attorney General—Charles Devens.
2[2] Invention of phonograph, 1877.
3[2] United States troops withdrawn from the South, 1877.
4[2] Invention of electric lights, 1879.
5[2] Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle organized, 1878.
6[2] Universal Postal Union established, 1878.
7[2] Grant's tour around the world, 1879.
8[2] Death of William Cullen Bryant, June 12, 1878.
6[1] Presidential campaign.
1[2] Political parties and candidates.
1[3] Republican—James A. Garfield and Chester A. Arthur.
2[3] Democratic—Winfield S. Hancock and Wm. H. English.
3[3] Greenback—Jas. B. Weaver and E. J. Chambers.
4[3] Prohibition—Neal Dow and H. A. Thompson.
2[2] Issues.
1[3] Tariff for protection or for revenue.
2[3] Chinese immigration.
3[3] Centralization or non-centralization of government.

18. James A. Garfield's and Chester A. Arthur's Administration. One term, 1881–1885.
1[1] Inauguration—March 4, 1881.
2[1] Vice President—Chester A. Arthur, 7 months 14 days.

3[1] Party in power—Republican.
4[1] Events having an influence upon Protestant and Republican principles.
1[2] Investigation of the Star Route Frauds, 1881.
2[2] The Chinese Bill, 1882.
1[3] Chinese importation was prohibited for ten years.
3[2] Tariff Act of 1883—Compromise Bill.
1[3] The receipts of the government were so large as to greatly augment its surplus.
2[3] This bill was a measure intended to reduce the income of the nation.
3[3] It did not reduce the revenue as much as expected and led to the introduction of the Morrison "Horizontal Bill" of 1884, which was defeated.
4[2] Pendleton's Civil Service Reform, 1883.
5[2] The Edmunds Anti-polygamy Bill of 1882.
6[2] The W. C. T. U. incorporated in Washington, D. C., 1883, and two years later became allied with the National Reform Association. See "Facts for the Times," p. 167.
7[2] The Revised New Testament published in England, America, and Australia, May 20, 1881.
1[3] 1,000,000 copies sold the day of publication.
8[2] Revised Old Testament issued, May, 1885.
1[3] The Revised Bible is the work of 52 English and 27 American scholars.
5[1] Events of interest unclassified.
1[2] The President's cabinet.
1[3] Secretary of State—(a) Jas. G. Blaine, (b) F. T. Frelinghuysen.

2[3] Secretary of the Treasury—(a) William H. Windom, (b) Chas. J. Folger.
3[3] Secretary of War—Robert T. Lincoln.
4[3] Secretary of the Navy—(a) W. H. Hunt. (b) Wm. E. Chandler.
5[3] Secretary of the Interior,. (a) S. J. Kirkwood, (b) Henry M. Teller.
6[3] Attorney General—(a) Wayne McVeagh, (b) Benj. H. Brewster.
7[3] Postmaster-General—(a) Thomas L. James, (b) T. O. Howe, (c) W. Q. Gresham, (d) Frank Hatton.

2[2] Cotton Exposition at Atlanta, Georgia, 1881.
3[2] Centennial celebration at Yorktown, Virginia, 1881.
4[2] Assassination of President Garfield by Chas. Guiteau, July 2, 1881.
1[3] Garfield died September 19, 1881.
2[3] Guiteau tried and executed, 1882.
3[3] Chester A. Arthur took the oath of office in New York Sept. 20, 1881, was formally inaugurated, Sept. 22.
5[2] Death of Henry W. Longfellow and Ralph Waldo Emerson, 1882.
6[2] The Red Cross Association organized, 1882.
7[2] Brooklyn Bridge completed, 1882.
8[2] North Pacific Railroad completed, 1883.
9[2] Letter postage reduced to two cents, 1883.
10[2] Standard Time adopted, 1883.
1[3] Eastern is the local time for meridian of 75°.
2[3] Central, of 90°.
3[3] Mountain, of 105°.
4[3] Pacific, of 120°.
11[2] Riots in Cincinnati, Ohio, 1884.
1[3] About 100 lives lost.

12[2] Washington Monument completed, 1885

6[1] Presidential campaign.

1[2] Political parties and candidates.

1[3] Republican—James G. Blaine.

2[3] Democratic—Grover Cleveland and Thos. A. Hendricks.

3[3] Prohibition—John P. St. John and Wm. Daniel.

4[3] Greenback Labor—Benj. F. Butler and H. M. West.

2[2] Issues.

1[3] Civil Service Reform.

2[3] Tariff Reform.

19. Grover Cleveland's first Administration. One term, 1885–1889.

1[1] Inauguration, March 4, 1885.

2[1] Vice President—Thomas A. Hendricks, 8 months 21 days.

3[1] Party in power—Democratic.

4[1] Events having an influence upon Protestant and Republican principles.

1[2] Labor troubles, 1886.

1[3] Railroad strikes.

2[3] Hay Market Riot in Chicago—Anarchist riots.

3[3] Labor organizations—Knights of Labor.

1[4] Cause and purpose.

2[4] Results—Boycott.

2[2] The Presidential Succession Bill, 1886.

1[3] Provisions—The bill provided that in case of death, resignation, or inability of the Vice President the order of succession shall be

1[4] Secretary of State.

2[4] Secretary of the Treasury.

3[4] Secretary of War.

4[4] Attorney General.
5[4] Postmaster General.
6[4] Secretary of the Navy.
7[4] Secretary of the Interior.
8[4] Secretary of Agriculture.

3[2] Oklahoma, a portion of the Indian Territory, ceded by the Indians to the Government, 1885.

4[2] The Electoral Count Bill, 1887.

5[2] The Inter-state Commerce Bill, 1887.
1[3] Reasons for the Act.
2[3] Importance and results.

6[2] Chinese Immigration Act, 1888.

7[2] International Association of Y. W. C. A. formed, 1886.

8[2] The Blair Sunday Bill introduced into Congress, 1888.

9[2] The American Sabbath Union organized in New York City by the Methodist church, 1888.

10[2] The government's surplus and the tariff.
1[4] The Mills Free Trade Bill.

11[2] The Contract Labor Act passed, 1887.

5[1] Events of interest unclassified.

1[2] The President's cabinet.
1[3] The Secretary of State—Thomas F. Bayard.
2[3] Secretary of the Treasury—(a) Daniel E. Manning, (b) Chas. S. Fairchild.
3[3] Secretary of War, W. C. Endicott.
4[3] Secretary of the Navy—W. C. Whitney.
5[3] Secretary of the Interior—(a) L. Q. C. Lamar, (b) Wm. F. Vilas.
6[3] Attorney General—A. H. Garland.
7[3] Postmaster General—(a) Wm. F. Vilas, (b) Don M. Dickinson.

8[3] Secretary of Agriculture—N. J. Colman.
2[2] The New Orleans Cotton Exposition, 1885.
3[2] Death of Vice President Hendricks, Nov. 25, 1885.
1[3] Fifth Vice President to die while holding office.
4[2] Natural gas first used for light and fuel, 1885.
5[2] Erection of Bartholdi statue "Liberty Enlightening the World," at New York Harbor, 1886.
1[3] Object.
2[3] Largest work of the kind ever completed.
1[4] Forefinger, 8 feet long.
2[4] Nose, 3 feet 8 inches.
3[4] Eyes, 2 feet 1½ inches wide.
4[4] Forty persons can stand in its head.
6[2] Department of Agriculture created, 1888.
7[2] Death of prominent men.
1[3] U. S. Grant, 1885.
2[3] Geo. B. McClellan, 1885.
3[3] Samuel J. Tilden, 1886.
4[3] Chester A. Arthur, 1886.
5[3] Horatio Seymour, 1886.
6[3] John A. Logan, 1886.
7[3] Henry Ward Beecher, 1887.
8[3] Louisa M. Alcott, 1888.
9[3] Chief Justice Waite, 1888.
10[2] Philip H. Sheridan, 1888.
6[1] Presidential campaign.
1[2] Political parties and candidates.
1[3] Republican — Benjamin Harrison and Levi P. Morton.
2[3] Democratic—Grover Cleveland and Allen G. Thurman.

3[3] Prohibition—Clinton B. Fiske and John A. Brooks.
4[3] United Labor—Robert H. Cowdrey and W. H. T. Wakefield.
5[3] Union Labor—A. J. Streeter and C. E. Cunningham.
6[3] Equal Rights—Belva A. Lockwood and Alfred H. Love.

2[2] Issues.
1[3] The Democrats and Republicans make tariff the principal issue.

20. Benjamin Harrison's Administration. One term, 1889–1893.

1[1] Inauguration—March 4, 1889.
2[1] Vice President—Levi P. Morton.
3[1] Party in power—Republican.
4[1] Events having an influence upon Protestant and Republican principles.
1[2] Oklahoma opened for settlement, April 22, 1889.
2[2] Samoan Difficulty, 1888–89.
1[3] A revolution occurred under Tamasese.
2[3] America sided with the King, Malietoa; Germany sided with the Revolutionists.
3[3] Thus the United States and Germany were brought into conflict. Both nations sent war vessels to Samoa.
4[3] England joined the United States for the support of the king and negotiations were entered into with Germany whereby the trouble was settled and Malietoa was restored to the throne.

3[2] The Pan-American Congress met at Washington, 1889–90.
1[3] Sixty-six members representing seventeen American republics.

3[3] Purpose.
1[4] It was designed to promote commercial intercourse among the countries of North and South America.
2[4] To encourage arbitration.
3[3] Results.
1[4] Arbitration adopted as the principle of American international law.
4[2] Passage of the Dependent Pension Bill, 1890.
5[2] The Sherman Silver Purchase Act, July 14, 1890.
1[3] Provisions and Results.
1[4] The Bill authorized the Secretary of the Treasury to purchase 4,500,000 ounces of silver per month at market value, to be stored as bullion in the treasury at Washington.
2[4] Legal-tender treasury notes were issued in payment of the silver.
4[4] After the purchase of 168,674,682 ounces of silver, the Sherman Act was repealed Nov. 1, 1893.
6[2] The McKinley Tariff Bill, 1890.
1[3] It was a protection to American industries.
2[3] Sugar and some other articles were placed on the free list.
3[3] It reduced the rate on some articles and increased it on many others.
4[3] It contained a reciprocity clause.
1[4] Define reciprocity.
7[2] Movements toward a union of Church and State.
1[3] Sunday Bill for the District of Columbia, 1890.

1[4] To protect persons from forced work on Sunday.

2[3] Dictum from the Supreme Court. "This is a Christian Nation", 1892.

3[3] Sunday Bill for the District of Columbia, 1892.

2[4] To prevent the delivery of ice on Sunday.

4[3] Bill for closing the Columbian Exposition on Sunday, 1892.

8[2] Difficulty with foreign powers.

1[3] Italy, 1891.

1[4] Causes.

1[5] A band of Italian Mafia killed the chief of police of New Orleans.

2[5] The jurors acquitted the murderers whereupon a mob broke into the jail and lynched eleven. It then became an international affair.

2[4] Results.

1[5] The United States paid the families of the lynched men for their losses.

2[3] Chile, 1891.

1[4] Two U. S. Sailors killed on the streets of Valparaiso.

3[3] England—Bering Sea Trouble, 1891.

1[4] Causes (See Cleveland's second term, 1893.)

2[4] Results.

1[5] Both England and America agreed to unite to prevent seal-killing in Bering Sea until the question could be finally settled by treaty.

It was settled by arbitration in August, 1893.

9[2] Chinese Exclusion re-enacted, 1893.

10[2] Homestead Labor Trouble near Pittsburg, Pa., 1892.

11[2] Ballot Reform.

1[3] The need of reform.

2[3] The Australian Ballot with various modifications adopted by 37 states, 1889–92.

12[2] Efforts to annex Hawaii, 1893.

1[3] Annexation proposition sent to the Senate by Harrison, February 15.

2[3] The Senate failed to act until Cleveland's inauguration. On March 6 Cleveland withdrew the proposition.

13[2] Rules in the House of Representatives, 1889–90.

1[3] "Filibustering" in Congress.

2[3] "Reed's rules."

5[1] Events of interest unclassified.

2[2] The President's cabinet.

1[3] Secretary of State—(a) James G. Blaine, (b)John W. Foster.

2[3] Secretary of the Treasury—(a) William Windom, (b) Charles Foster.

3[3] Secretary of War—(a) Redfield Procter, (b) Stephen B. Elkins.

4[3] Secretary of the Navy—Benjamin F. Tracy.

5[3] Secretary of Interior—John W. Noble.

6[3] Attorney General—W. H. H. Miller.

7[3] Postmaster General—John Wanamaker.

8[3] Secretary of Agriculture—Jeremiah Rusk.

2[2] The Washington Centennial, April 30, 1889.

1[3] Patriotic orations and exercises throughout the United States.

2[3] President Harrison sat in Washington's pew in St. Paul's Church, New York City.

3[2] The Johnstown Disaster or Conemaugh Valley Horror, May 31, 1889.

1[3] The heavy Spring rains caused a large dam to break. A volume of water forty feet high rushed down the narrow valley. The manufacturing city of between 2,000 and 3,000 inhabitants washed away and nearly all the people drowned. Ten million dollars worth of property was destroyed.

4[2] Mary Bisland ("Nelly Bly") journeyed around the world in eighty days, 1890.

5[2] Anti-Trust and Anti-Lottery Bills passed.

6[2] Gentiles carried the election in Salt Lake City, 1890.

6[2] The Panama Scandal, 1892.

8[2] Death of prominent men.

1[3] John C. Fremont, 1890.

2[3] George Bancroft, 1891.

3[3] William T. Sherman, 1891.

4[3] James Russell Lowell, 1891.

6[1] Presidential campaign.

1[2] Political parties and candidates.

1[3] Republican—Benjamin Harrison and Whitelaw Reid.

2[3] Democratic—Grover Cleveland and Adlai Stevenson.

3[3] Prohibition—John Bidwell and J. B. Cranfill.

4[3] People's Party—James B. Weaver and James G. Field.

2^2 Issues.

1^3 The Tariff was the chief issue between the Democrats and Republicans.

12. Grover Cleveland's second Administration. One term, 1893–1897.

1^1 Inauguration—March 4, 1893.

2^1 Vice President—A. E. Stevenson.

3^1 Party in power—Democratic.

4^1 Events having an influence on Protestant and Republican principles.

1^2 Columbian World's Fair held in Chicago, 1893.

1^3 May 1 to Oct. 31. Open 157 week days and 22 Sundays. Closed 5 Sundays.

2^3 Object.

3^3 Floor space.

1^4 Total 240 Acres.

2^4 Largest building, Manufactures and Liberal Arts building, 44 acres floor space.

4^3 Total admissions—27,529,400.

2^2 Hawaiian Rebellion.

1^3 Natives rebelled, and overthrew the government under Queen Liliuokalini.

2^3 They applied for annexation to the United States.

3^3 President Harrison's Hawaiian policy.

4^3 President Cleveland's Hawaiian policy.

5^3 Action of the Senate.

6^3 Hawaii became a republic, July 4, 1894.

7^3 In August, 1894, the United States recognized the new Republic.

3^2 Bering Sea Controversy settled, August, 1893.

1^3 Canadian and British vessels were exterminating the seals in Bering Sea.

2[3] The United States seized their vessels and confiscated them.
3[3] The British government remonstrated.
4[3] The difficulty was settled by arbitration.
5[3] The seven arbitrators met at Paris. Both nations agreed (a) to close the season from May 1, to July 2, (b) to protect the seal 60 miles from coast line, (c) to prohibit the use of fire-arms.

4[2] Repeal of Sherman Silver Purchase Act, 1893.

5[2] Financial Panic, 1893.
1[3] Causes.
1[4] Hostile attitude between capital and labor.
2[4] A too rapid development of the country.
3[4] Extravagance in speculations and living.
4[4] Failure of crops.
5[4] A fear of a great reduction of the tariff.
2[3] Events.
1[4] Business houses, foundries and factories failed in great numbers.
2[4] Many great railroad companies went into the hands of receivers.
3[4] Wages were reduced and many thousands thrown out of employment.
4[4] Strikes and riots, 1894.
1[5] On the railroads and in the mines.
2[5] The Pullman Strike at Chicago, June to September.
1[6] Federal troops sent to prevent destruction of life and property.

2[6] Commission of investigation appointed.

5[4] Stocks, bonds, and real estate quickly depreciate in value.

6[4] There was but little gold in the United States Treasury.

3[3] Relief.

1[4] The government issued $262,315,000 bonds.

2[4] It required time, industry, economy, restoration of business confidence, and employment of idle men at good wages.

6[2] The Wilson Tariff Bill, 1894.

1[3] It was a revenue tariff.

2[3] Wool, flax, hemp, agricultural implements, salt, lumber, etc. were put on the free list.

3[3] The duty was increased on a few articles and a levy of 1½ cents a pound was made on sugar.

4[3] The tax on the manufacture of whisky was raised from 90 cents to $1.10 per gallon. Other internal revenue changes made.

5[3] The average duty of 50% ad valorem under the McKinley Bill was reduced to 37%.

6[3] All incomes in excess of $4,000 per year were taxed at 2%.

7[3] An inheritance of more than $4,000 was taxed 2%.

7[2] Chinese Treaty.

1[3] Conditions or terms.

1[4] Chinese laborers were prohibited from entering the United States except

under certain conditions specified by the treaty.

2^4 Those in the United States were guaranteed protection to their persons and property as if citizens of the United States.

3^4 Chinese were denied the right to become naturalized citizens.

4^4 The Chinese government was to have the right to make and enforce similar laws in reference to America and Americans.

5^4 The treaty was to remain in force for ten years.

8^2 Coxey's Army and Kelley's Contingency, 1894.

9^2 Municipal Reform

1^3 Dr. Chas. H. Parkhurst.

2^3 Investigation of the Lexaw Committee.

3^3 Downfall of Tammany in New York City.

10^2 The Cuban Rebellion, 1895.

11^2 The Supreme Court decided the Income Tax law unconstitutional, 1895.

12^2 The Venezuelan boundary dispute. (Cleveland and the Monroe Doctrine).

1^3 Nature of the dispute.

2^3 Settlement.

13^2 Extension of the Civil Service.

1^3 Thirty thousand positions placed under it.

14^2 Alaska Boundary dispute, 1895.

5^1 Events of interest unclassified.

1^2 The President's cabinet.

1^3 Secretary of State—(a) W. J. Gresham, (b) Richard Olney.

2[3] Secretary of the Treasury—John G. Carlisle.
3[3] Secretary of War—Daniel S. Lamont.
4[3] Secretary of the Navy—Hilary A. Herbert.
5[3] Secretary of the Interior—(a) Hoke Smith, (b) David R. Francis.
6[3] Attorney General—(a) Richard Olney, (b) Judson Harmon.
7[3] Postmaster General—(a) William S. Bissell, (b) William L. Wilson.
8[3] Secretary of Agriculture—J. Sterling Morton.

2[2] Law passed allowing foreigners who serve five years in the U. S. Navy or one enlistment in the Marine Corps to become citizens upon petition, 1894.
3[2] The Horr-Harvey Debate.
4[2] Confederate Monument erected in Chicago.
5[2] Christian Young People's Conventions.
1[3] Y. P. S. C. E. at Washington, 1896.
2[3] Epworth League at Toronto, 1897.
3[3] B. Y. P. U. at Milwaukee, 1897.
6[2] Death list.
1[3] S. F. Smith author of "America", 1895.
2[3] Oliver Wendell Holmes, 1894.
3[3] Justice H. E. Jackson, 1895.
4[3] Walter I. Gresham, 1895.

6[1] Presidential campaign.
1[2] Political parties and candidates.
1[3] Republican—Wm. McKinley and Garret A. Hobart.
2[3] Democratic—Wm. Jennings Bryan and Authur J. Sewall.
3[3] Populist—Wm. J. Bryan and Thos. E. Watson.

4[3] Gold Democrat—John M. Palmer and Simon B. Buckner.

5[3] Prohibition—Joshua Levering and Hale Johnson.

2[2] Issue.

1[3] Free and unlimited coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1, as opposed to the gold standard.

2[3] The Republicans advocated a protective tariff.

22. William McKinley's Administration. One term, six months, and ten days, 1897–1901.

1[1] Inauguration—March 4, 1897.

2[2] Vice-President—(a) Garret A. Hobert, (b) Theodore Roosevelt, 6 months, 10 days.

3[1] Party in power—Republican.

4[1] Events having an influence upon Protestant and Republican principles.

1[2] Passage of the Dingley Tariff Act, 1897.

1[3] Author—Nelson Dingley of Maine.

2[2] Provisions.

1[4] By the Wilson Tariff Bill, wool was on the free list. The Dingley Tariff Act placed a duty of 11 cents per pound on first-class wool, 12 cents per pound on second-class, and 7 cents per pound on third-class.

2[4] There was a general reduction of tariff on cotton goods.

3[4] The duty on farm products was greatly increased; eggs, from 3 cents to 5 cents per dozen; hay, from $2 to $4 per ton; lard from 1 cent to 2 cents per pound; poultry, from 3 cents to 5 cents per pound; potatoes, from 15

cents to 25 cents per bushel; hides from the free list to 15% ad valorem.

4[4] The duty on spirits was increased from $1.80 to $2.25 per proof gallon.

5[4] On most imported articles there was a material increase of duty over the Wilson Bill.

6[4] It contained a reciprocity clause.

3[3] Results.

1[4] Manufacturing industry of the United States increased.

2[4] Eleven reciprocity treaties negotiated but failed to pass the Senate.

2[2] Spanish-American War and territorial expansion, 1898.

1[3] Causes and events leading to the war.

1[4] Revolution in Cuba, started in February, 1895.

2[4] The United States Government, though sympathizing with the Cubans, maintained for more than two years a strict neutrality.

3[4] General Weyler's (Spanish) war policy in Cuba.

1[5] Destruction of Cuban property.

2[5] "Concentration" of the people living outside the towns into *reconcentrado* camps.

3[5] Starvation of "concentrados" in their dirty camps.

4[4] Protest by President Cleveland on the part of the United States against General Weyley's policy.

5[4] The warship "Maine" was sent to Havana to look after the interests of the United States, January, 1898.

6[4] The "Maine" was sunk and 266 American sailors killed, February 15, 1898.

7[4] Spain's refusal to give audience to American proposals for diplomatic negotiations with Spain for the purpose of ending the Cuban War.

8[4] Congress placed $50,000,000 at the disposal of the President for "national defense."

9[4] Congress recognized the independence of Cuba, April 19, 1898.

10[4] President McKinley sent his ultimatum to Spain, April 20. Before Mr. Woodford, United States minister to Spain, could hand his ultimatum to the Spanish government, he received his passport home.

11[4] The President's Message to Congress, April 11, 1898.

1[5] "In the name of humanity, in the name of civilization, in behalf of endangered American interests, which give us the right and the duty to speak and act, the war in Cuba must stop."

12[4] Congress authorized the President to use the military and naval forces of the United States to compel Spain to leave Cuba, April 20, 1898.

13[4] A resolution passed Congress April 25, declaring that war existed and had existed since April 21, 1898.

2[3] Operations.

1[4] The President issued a call for 125,000 volunteers, April 23.

2[4] Blockade of the Cuban ports.
3[4] Battle of Manila, May 1.
1[5] The Spanish fleet destroyed without the loss of an American man or vessel.
4[4] Congress passed the War Revenue Act, June, 1898.
5[4] Santiago campaign.
1[5] The Spanish fleet entered the harbor of Santiago de Cuba in May.
2[5] R. P. Hobson attempted to block the harbor by sinking the Merrimac, June 3.
3[5] The battleship "Oregon" arrives from San Francisco via Cape Horn.
4[5] Battles of El Caney and San Juan, July 1 and 2.
5[5] The Spanish fleet in an attempt to escape is entirely destroyed with heavy loss of life. The Americans lost one killed and one wounded, July 3.
6[5] On July 15 the city of Santiago surrendered; 22,000 Spanish prisoners were taken and later sent to Spain.
6[4] General Miles' Porto Rico campaign.
1[5] Met but little resistance.
3[3] Results.
1[4] Peace Protocol signed, August 12, 1898.
1[4] Treaty of peace.
1[5] Signed at Paris, December 10, 1898; ratified by the Senate, February 6, 1899; signed by Queen Regent,

March 18; and exchanged with Spain, April 11, 1899.

2[5] Terms.

1[6] Spain gave up all title and claim to Cuba.

2[6] Spain ceded to the United States:—

1[7] Porto Rico and other Spanish islands in the West Indies.

2[7] Guam of the Ladrone group.

3[7] The Philippine Islands.

3[6] The United States agreed:—

1[7] To pay Spain $20,000,000.

2[7] To admit to the ports of the Philippines the Spanish ships and merchandise on the same terms as those of the United States.

3[7] To transport to Spain at expense of the United States all Spanish prisoners of war taken at Manila and Santiago by the Americans.

4[6] Both nations agreed to release all prisoners of war and to relinquish all claims for indemnity against each other.

3[4] Spain withdrew and the United States assumed control of Cuba, January 1, 1899.

3[2] Annexation of the Hawaiian Islands, July 7, 1898.

1[3] Value to the United States.

4[2] The Philippine insurrection began, Feb. 4, 1899.

1[3] Cause.

1[4] When the President announced that the purpose of the United States in the Philippines was to be one of "benevolent assimilation," the Filipinos rebelled against the authority of the United States.

2[3] Results.

1[4] Much skirmishing in which many Americans and Filipinos were killed.

2[4] The insurrection ended when General Funston captured its leader, Aguinaldo.

5[2] "Boxer" uprising against foreigners in China.

1[3] Many nations sent troops to subdue the "Boxers."

2[3] Most of these nations desired Chinese territory or exclusive trade privileges as a form of indemnity.

3[3] John Hay, Secretary of State, notified all concerned that the United States would insist upon:—

1[4] The preservation of "territorial and administrative entity of China."

2[4] An "open door" in matters of trade.

4[3] All the allied powers agreed to the principles set forth by Secretary Hay.

6[2] Gold Standard Act, 1900.

5[3] Gold dollar made unit of value.

2[3] A gold reserve of $150,000,000 provided for.

3[3] The treasury department authorized re-

funding the national debt in 2% thirty-year bonds.

4^3 National Banks were authorized.

1^4 To organize with a capital of $25,000.

2^4 To issue legal tender notes to the par value of their United States bonds deposited with the Treasury.

7^2 Decision of the Supreme Court with respect to our new island possessions, May 27, 1901.

8^2 American teachers sent to the Philippines.

9^2 The proposed isthmian canal and its relation to the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty of 1850, and the Hay-Poncefote Treaty of 1891.

5^1 Events of interest unclassified.

1^2 The president's cabinet.

1^3 Secretary of State—(a) John Sherman, (b) Wm. R. Day, (c) John Hay.

2^3 Secretary of the Treasury—Lyman J. Gage.

3^3 Secretary of War—(a) Russell A. Alger, (b) Elihu Root.

4^3 Secretary of the Navy—John D. Long.

5^3 Secretary of the Interior—(a) Cornelius N. Bliss, (b) Ethan A. Hitchcock.

6^3 Postmaster General—(a) James A. Gary, (b) Chas. Emery Smith.

7^3 Attorney General—(a) Joseph McKenna, (b) John W. Griggs, (c) Philander C. Knox.

8^3 Secretary of Agriculture—James Wilson.

2^2 Opening of the Congressional Library Building, 1897.

3^2 Increase in American exports, 1897-98.

4^2 Charter of Greater New York goes into operation, Jan. 1, 1898.

5^2 Temporary agreement between the United States and Great Britain concerning the boundary of Alaska.

6^2 Death of Vice President Hobart, Nov. 21, 1899.

7^2 Galveston disaster, Sept. 8, 1900.

8^2 Opening of Chicago Drainage Canal, 1900.

9^2 The X-ray and telegraph.

10^2 The Anti-canteen Bills.

11^2 Pan-American Exposition at Buffalo, N. Y., May 1 to Nov. 2, 1900.

12^2 Assassination of President McKinley.

1^3 Was shot at Buffalo, N. Y., Sept. 6, 1901.

2^3 He died eight days later, Sept. 14.

3^3 Vice President Roosevelt took the President's oath of office Sept. 14, 1901.

6^1 Presidential campaign, 1900.

1^2 Political parties and candidates.

1^3 Republican—William McKinley and Theodore Roosevelt.

2^3 Democratic—Wm. Jennings Bryan and Adlai E. Stevenson.

3^3 People's Party—Endorsed the Democratic nominees.

2^2 Issues.

1^3 Gold standard and free coinage.

2^3 Expansion and imperialism.

23. Theodore Roosevelt's Administration. Two terms lacking six months and ten days, 1901–1909.

1^1 Inauguration—September 14, 1901.

2^1 Vice President—(a) ————, (b) Chas. W. Fairbanks.

3^1 Party in power—Republican.

4^1 Events having an influence upon Protestant and Republican principles.

1[2] Strikes.
1[3] Coal miners strike, 1902; 1906.
2[3] Telegraphers, 1907.
2[2] Settlement of Alaskan boundary dispute.
1[3] Cause of the dispute.
1[4] The Alaska purchase treaty with Russia (1867) provided that the boundary of Alaska north of 56° north latitude should be the summit of the mountains parallel to the coast, except where the mountains were more than ten leagues from the coast; at such places the boundary was to parallel the coast at a distance of ten leagues.
3[4] Canada claimed that where there are bays the distance is to be measured from the capes of peninsulas, thus allowing Canada to have some coast line.
3[4] The United States claimed the boundary parallel to the coast at such places.
2[3] Treaty with England, January 24, 1903.
1[4] The treaty provided for an Alaskan Boundary Tribunal composed of:
1[5] Three members from the United States.
2[5] Two members from Canada.
3[5] One member from Great Britain.
2[4] The Tribunal decided in favor of the United States by a vote of 4 to 2.
3[2] Department of Commerce and Labor created, Feb. 14, 1903.
4[2] Panama Canal.
1[3] Events relating to the canal.

1[4] Clayton-Bulwer treaty of 1850 between the United States and Great Britain.
  1[5] Each nation agreed that "neither the one nor the other will ever obtain or maintain for itself any exclusive control over the said ship canal."
2[4] The French Panama Canal Co. organized, 1881.
3[4] A second French company organized and obtained concessions from Columbia for ten years from 1894.
4[4] Hay-Poncefote Treaty with Great Britain, February, 1900.
  1[5] Its purpose was to repeal the Clayton-Bulwer treaty.
  2[5] It was rejected by Great Britain.
5[4] Hay-Poncefote Treaty repealed.
  1[5] Clayton-Bulwer Treaty repealed.
  2[5] The United States to be sole owner, builder, and protector of the canal.
  3[5] The canal zone to be neutral ground in time of war.
6[4] Property and interests of the French canal company purchased for $40,000,000, June, 1902.
7[4] Hay-Herran Treaty negotiated between the United States and Columbia, Jan. 23, 1903.
  1[5] Columbia was to lease to the United States a zone six miles wide for a canal.
  2[5] The United States was to pay $10,000,000 on ratification of treaty

and an annual rent of $250,000 beginning nine years later.

3[5] The United States agreed to have the Canal completed and ready for use in fourteen years.

4[5] Rejected by Columbia, August 17, 1903.

8[4] Panama proclaimed her independence of Columbia, Nov. 3, 1903.

9[4] President Roosevelt on the part of the United States recognized the independence of Panama, Nov. 13, 1903.

10[4] Hay-Varilla Treaty between United States and Panama, Nov. 18, 1903.

1[5] Panama made a perpetual lease to the United States of a zone ten miles wide.

2[5] The United States agreed to pay Panama $10,000,000 on ratification of treaty and an annual rental of $250,000, beginning nine years later.

3[5] The United States guaranteed the independence of Panama.

4[5] Ratified, Feb. 23, 1904.

11[4] Congress passed act for government of the canal zone, April, 1904.

12[4] The Panama Commission organized, March, 1905.

13[4] Congress decided that the work of constructing the canal should be given to the engineering officers of the army, April, 1907.

14[4] Lock type of canal determined upon, February, 1909.

5[2] Trouble with Japan threatened.

1[3] Board of Education of San Francisco issued an order excluding all Japanese children from the regular public schools and requiring them to attend a separate school for Orientals, October, 1906.

2[3] The laboring classes along the Pacific coast strongly opposed the immigration of Japanese.

3[3] Japan sent a protest to the United States against the violation of treaty rights, October 15, 1906

4[3] President Roosevelt sent Secretary of Interior to investigate and make report.

1[4] Results.

1[5] Japanese pupils below the age of sixteen admitted to regular public schools.

2[5] President Roosevelt issued order for exclusion of Japanese and Koreans not having passports.

6[2] Relations with China.

1[3] Chinese Exclusion Act renewed, 1904.

2[3] China was forced to agree to pay the United States $38,000,000, including interest, as indemnity for expenses in subduing "Boxer" insurrection.

3[3] It was later found that $11,000,000 would pay all expenses and President Roosevelt notified the Chinese Government that the balance of $27,000,000 would be remitted.

4[3] China announced that the amount remitted would be used to pay the expenses of Chinese students in American colleges.

7[2] War between Russia and Japan ended

largely through the influence of President Roosevelt, 1905.

8[2] Railroad Rate Act, June 26, 1906.

1[3] It increased the powers of the Interstate Commerce Commission over railway rates.

9[2] Immigration Act, June 29, 1906.

1[3] Revised the Naturalization laws and provided for a Bureau of Immigration and Naturalization.

10[2] Pure food, meat inspection, and drug act, Jan. 1, 1907.

11[2] Secretary of Commerce and Labor authorized to "investigate and make report on the industrial, social, moral, educational, and physical condition of women and child workers in United States," Jan. 29, 1907.

12[2] The second Hague Conference, 1907.

1[3] First proposed by President Roosevelt.

2[3] Forty-six governments represented.

13[2] United States assumes temporary government of Cuba, Sept. 29, 1906.

1[3] Causes and results.

1[4] Revolt against Cuban government, 1905–1906.

2[4] Amnesty proclamation issued by President Palma, Aug. 27, 1906.

3[4] President Palma seeks aid from the United States, Sept. 8, 1906.

4[4] President Roosevelt responded by sending Peace Commissioners headed by Secretary of War, W. H. Taft, Sept. 19, 1906.

5[4] President Palma resigned, Sept. 28, 1906.

6[4] Secretary Taft issued a proclamation establishing a provisional government, Sept. 29, 1906.

7[4] United States sent troops to Cuba and military rule established.

8[4] A general election was held and J. Miguel Gomez elected second president of Cuba, November, 1908.

9[4] Government of Cuba turned over to the Cubans and United States withdraws with the inauguration of Gomez as president, Jan. 28, 1909.

14[2] Establishment of civil government in the Philippines, July 4, 1902.

1[3] First census completed March 28, 1905.

2[3] President Roosevelt issued order for election of a General Assembly, March 29, 1907.

3[3] First session of General Assembly opened by Secretary Taft, October, 1907.

4[3] The Philippine Government now has two resident representatives in the United States Congress.

5[3] Influence American possession in the Philippines has had upon missionary work.

15[2] Governors' Convention, 1909.

16[2] Purchase of the Danish West Indies: St. Croix, St. Thomas, and St. John.

17[2] Riot at Brownsville, Texas, Aug. 13, 1906.

1[3] Twenty-fifth Infantry, colored, stationed at Brownsville. A riot occurred in which shots were fired from government guns. An investigation failed to make known the guilty parties whereup-

on President Roosevelt dismissed the entire battalion without honors, November, 1906.

18[2] Prosecution of great "trusts".

1[3] A number of railroads were prosecuted for making rebates in violation of Elkins Act of 1903.

2[3] Standard Oil Company, 1907–1909.

3[3] Tobacco trust, 1908.

19[2] "Civil Righteousness" movement.

1[3] Manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquors prohibited in Georgia, Alabama, and North Carolina.

2[3] Sunday Bills introduced into Congress.

20[2] The Laymen's Missionary Movement.

21[2] Federation of Churches.

22[2] Release of Miss Ellen Stone.

5[1] Events of interest unclassified.

1[2] The President's cabinet.

1[3] Secretary of State—(a) John Hay, (b) Elihu Root.

2[3] Secretary of the Treasury—(a) Lyman J. Gage, (b) Leslie M. Shaw, (c) George B. Cortelyou.

3[3] Secretary of War—(a) Elihu Root, (b) William H. Taft, (c) Luke E. Wright.

4[3] Secretary of the Interior—(a) Cornelius W. Bliss, (b) Ethan A. Hitchcock, (c) James A. Garfield.

5[3] Secretary of the Navy—(a) John D. Long, (b) Wm. H. Moody, (c) Paul Morton, (d) Victor H. Metcalf, (e) Truman H. Newberry.

6[3] Attorney General—(a) J. W. Griggs, (b) Philander C. Knox, (c) William H. Moody, (d) Charles J. Bonaparte.

7[3] Postmaster General—(a) Charles Emery Smith, (b) Henry C. Payne, (c) Robert J. Wayne, (c) George von L. Meyer.
8[3] Secretary of Agriculture—James A. Wilson.
9[3] Secretary of Commerce and Labor (a) George B. Cortelyou; (b) Victor H. Metcalf, (c) Oscar S. Straus.
2[2] Trial and execution of assassin Czolgosz.
3[2] Tribute to McKinley.
4[2] Visit of Prince Henry of Germany to United States.
5[2] Laying of the American Pacific Cable, 1902.
1[3] Laid by the United States between San Francisco, Hawaii, Manila, and Hong Kong.
6[2] President Roosevelt's wireless telegram to King Edward, Jan. 19, 1903.
7[2] Louisiana Purchase Expedition, 1904.
8[2] Enlargement of the Erie Canal, 1905.
9[2] Work begun on the Panama Canal, 1905.
10[2] San Francisco earthquake, April 18, 1906.
11[2] Financial Panic, 1907.
12[2] Voyage of the Atlantic Battleship Fleet. 1907–1909.
13[2] Peary and Wellman expeditions.
14[2] Child-Labor laws passed.
15[2] President's salary increased to $75,000 per year.
1[3] Effective from March 4, 1909.
6[1] Presidential campaign.
1[2] Political parties and candidates.
1[3] Republican—William Howard Taft and James S. Sherman.
2[3] Democratic—William Jennings Bryan and John W. Kern.

3[3] Prohibition—Eugene W. Chafin and A. S. Watkins.
4[3] Socialist—Eugene V. Debs and Benjamin Hanford.
5[3] Populist—Thomas E. Watson and Samuel W. Williams.
6[3] Independence League—Thomas L. Hisgen and John Temple Graves.

2[2] Issues.
1[3] Tariff revision.
2[3] Publicity of campaign expenses.
3[3] Limitation of power of Speaker of the House of Representatives.
4[3] Anti-trust laws.
5[3] Election of Senators by direct vote.

24. William Howard Taft's Administration. One Term, 1909–1913.
1[1] Inauguration—March 4, 1909.
2[1] Vice President— James S. Sherman.
3[1] Party in power—Republican.
4[1] Events having an influence upon Protestant and Republican principles.
1[2] The Aldrich-Payne Tariff law, 1909.
1[3] It created a Court of Customs Appeals.
2[3] It established a minimum and a maximum tariff by which the Chief Executive has been able to compel other countries to stop discrimination against American trade.
3[3] It provided for a Tariff Board whose duty it is to secure information for the assistance of the President in discharging his duties with respect to the tariff laws.
4[1] It provided for free trade with the Philippines.

5[3] It established a corporation tax.

2[2] The two-cent railroad fare of Missouri was nullified by the United States District Court on the grounds that it was confiscatory, 1909.

3[2] Sunday Bills in Congress.

4[2] Constitutional Amendments.

1[3] Article XVI empowered Congress to levy an income tax.

2[3] Article XVII provided for the election of Senators by direct vote of the people.

5[2] Army protection withdrawn from Cuba, March 31, 1909.

6[2] Campaign in Maryland to restrict negro suffrage; September, 1909.

7[2] The Nicaraguan Revolution, 1909–1910.

8[2] Interstate Commerce Act, June 18, 1910.

1[3] Authorized a Commerce Court.

9[2] Supreme Court decision on religious instruction, Jan. 24, 1910.

10[2] Ballinger-Pinchot controversy, 1910.

11[2] The Sherman Anti-trust Law.

12[2] Revolution in Mexico.

1[3] President Taft ordered to the Mexican frontiers 20,000 troops and 10 armed cruisers, March, 1911.

13[2] The Supreme Court declared the Standard Oil Company and the American Tobacco Company to be unlawful combinations and ordered their dissolution, May, 1911.

14[2] The Chamizal boundary dispute between United States and Mexico.

1[3] Occasioned by a change in the channel of the Rio Grande River near El Paso, Texas.

2[3] The dispute involved about 600 acres of

land, 6,000 people, and a property value of $7,000,000.

3[3] The question was referred to the International Arbitration Court which rendered its decision June 15, 1911, in favor of Mexico. The United States, unwilling to give up the river as the international boundary, bought from Mexico the territory cut off by the change in the river channel.

15[2] United States treaty with Japan, Russia, and Great Britain for the protection of seals in the North Pacific ocean and Bering Sea, December, 1911.

16[2] Reform in House of Representatives.

17[2] The Federal Judiciary Act, March 3, 1911.

1[3] The Circuit Court abolished.

2[3] Circuit Court of Appeals and District Courts readjusted to suit the new system.

18[2] Woman suffrage movement.

19[2] Temperance movement.

20[2] Men and Religion Forward Movement.

21[2] The Canadian Reciprocity Bill defeated in Canada.

22[2] Unseating of Mr. Lorimer of Illinois, in the United States Senate.

23[2] Sunday mail delivery, 1913.

1[3] A proviso attached to the post-office appropriation bill requires that first- and second-class post-offices be not opened for delivery of mail to the general public on Sunday.

5[1] Events of interest unclassified.

1[2] The President's cabinet.

1[3] Secretary of State—Philander C. Knox.

2^3 Secretary of the Treasury—Franklin Mac Vaegh.

3^3 Secretary of War—(a) Jacob M. Dickinson, (b) Henry Stimson.

4^3 Secretary of the Interior—Richard A. Ballinger, (b) Walter L. Fisher.

5^3 Secretary of the Navy—George von L. Meyer.

6^3 Attorney General—George C. Wickersham.

7^3 Postmaster General—Frank H. Hitchcock.

8^3 Secretary of Agriculture—James A. Wilson.

9^3 Secretary of Commerce and Labor—Charles Nagel.

2^2 Opening of Long Island City Bridge, March 30, 1909.

3^2 The Twin Tunnels under the Hudson River opened for traffic, July 19, 1909.

4^2 Discovery of watery vapor on Mars by Prof. W. W. Campbell.

5^2 Opening of the Gunnison Tunnel, September 23, 1909.

6^2 Death of Associate Justice Peckham, October 24, 1909.

1^3 Horace H. Lurton appointed to fill the vacancy.

7^2 Discovery of the North Pole by Robert E. Peary, 1909.

8^2 Postal Savings Bank system established.

9^2 Dedication of Bureau of American Republics, April 26, 1910.

10^2 Raising of the Battleship Maine.

11^2 Sinking of the Titanic.

12[2] Discovery of the South Pole by Captain Roald Amundsen.

13[2] Organization of the Progressive Party, June 22, 1912.

14[2] Parcel-post, to operate on the zone system, established by Act of Congress, August 24, 1912. Went into effect January 1, 1913.

15[2] Death of Vice President Sherman, October 30, 1912.

6[1] Presidential campaign.

1[2] Political parties and candidates.

1[3] Republican—Willam H. Taft and James S. Sherman.

2[3] Democratic—Thomas Woodrow Wilson and Thomas R. Marshall.

3[3] Progressives—Theodore Roosevelt and Hiram Johnson.

2[2] Issues.

1[3] Tariff Reform.

2[3] Anti-trust Legislation.

3[3] Third term of the presidency.

25. Thomas Woodrow Wilson's Administration—1913—.

1[1] Inauguration—March 4, 1913.

2[1] Vice President—Thomas R. Marshall.

3[1] Party in Power—Progressive Democrats.

4[1] Events having an influence upon Protestant and Republican principles.

1[2] Meeting of the Sixty-third Congress in special session, April 7, 1913.

2[2] Passage of the Newlands-Clayton Bill, 1913.

1[3] The law provides for a board of mediation and conciliation to settle disputes between corporations and their employees.

3[2] Tariff revision, 1913.
  1[3] Wool, sugar, and meat were placed on the free list.
  2[3] A general reduction of tariff on all the common necessaries of life.
4[2] Johnston Sunday Bill introduced into Congress, April 12, 1913.
5[2] World's Christian Citizenship Conference.
  1[3] Portland, Oregon, June 29–July 5, 1913.
  2[3] Held under the auspices of the National Reform Association.
6[2] Compulsory reading of the Bible in the public schools of Pennsylvania, 1913.
7[2] Celebration of the fiftieth anniversary of the battle of Gettysburg, 1913.
8[2] Mr. Lind sent to Mexico as special envoy from the United States.
9[2] Recall of all American citizens living in Mexico.
10[2] Passage of the Income Tax Law, 1913.
11[2] The President and the "spoils system."
  1[3] By the passage of the Urgent Deficiency Bill, 1200 places of deputy marshals and deputy collectors of internal revenue were taken from the Civil Service lists.
  2[3] By order of the President, notice was given to all who have to do with the appointment of such deputies that they are not to be appointed for personal reward, and that "anything which savors of the spoils system will be considered as a serious disregard of public duty."
12[2] Blowing up of Gamboa Dike, October 10, 1913.

1^3 This was one of the last acts in uniting the Atlantic and the Pacific by means of the Panama Canal. President Wilson pressed an electric button in Washington, D. C., which set off the charge of forty tons of dynamite that did the work.

13^2 Strikes and labor troubles.

1^3 Coal strike in Colorado, Nov. 1913.

1^4 Several battles between the strikers and strike-breakers, resulting in many deaths.

2^4 Governor Ammons ordered the entire state militia to the coal fields.

3^4 The strikers and mine guards were disarmed by the militia.

2^3 Other strikes, etc.

14^2 Florida passes a prohibitory education law, 1913.

1^3 The law makes it unlawful "for white teachers to teach negroes in negro schools, and for negro teachers to teach in white schools. This law virtually closes the mission schools for negroes in Florida.

15^2 Enforcement of state Sunday laws.

1^3 Arrests in Tennessee, 1913.

5^1 Events of interest unclassified.

1^2 The President's cabinet.

1^3 Secretary of State—William J. Bryan.

2^3 Secretary of the Treasury—William G. McAdoo.

3^3 Secretary of War—Lindley M. Garrison.

4^3 Secretary of the Interior—Frank K. Lane.

5^3 Secretary of the Navy — Josephus Daniels.

6^3 Attorney General—James McReynolds.
7^3 Postmaster General—Albert S. Burleson.
8^3 Secretary of Agriculture — David H. Houston.
9^3 Secretary of Commerce — William C. Redfield.
10^3 Secretary of Labor—William B. Wilson.
2^2 Edward D. White appointed Chief Justice of the Supreme Court.
3^2 Destructive floods in the Ohio and Mississippi valleys, March and April, 1913.
4^2 Disastrous storm on the Great Lakes, Nov. 9 and 11, 1913.
1^3 Lives lost, 300.
2^3 Boats destroyed, 19.
3^3 Property loss, $10,000,000.

I fain would thank Thee that my mortal life
Has reached the hour (albeit through care and pain)
When Good and Evil, as for final strife,
Close dim and vast on Armageddon's plain.

—*Whittier.*

Yet, while the need of Freedom's cause demands
The earnest effort of our hearts and hands,
Urged by all motives that can prompt the heart
To prayer and toil and manhood's manliest part;
Let not Passion wrest from Reason's hand
The guiding rein and symbol of command.

—*Whittier.*

Suggestions to Teachers

More than ten years ago, while teaching United States history and civil government in a teachers' summer school, the author prepared a series of lessons based upon the principles of history study herein presented. From time to time while teaching the subject these principles have enlarged and developed in his own mind, and the outlines have been revised and important notes added. Repeatedly the teachers of the middle West have urged the publication of these outlines for use in their schools; but for reasons not under control of the author they could not be issued. The present edition is possible only because of the interest shown and the encouragement given by a large circle of friends.

A few suggestions in regard to the use of these outlines and notes may be helpful to teachers and pupils. The author has endeavored to so arrange the subject matter as to make its use possible with any standard text on United States history. For this reason no direct references to text-books are given in the outlines.

The order of the outlines should be carefully observed in making all lesson assignments. The teacher should compare the outline with the text used by the pupils and whenever necessary give reference to the page or paragraph where the subjects of the outline are treated. The notes found in each section and referred to in the outlines should not be overlooked. They deal with subjects not fully discussed in the ordinary school text.

Section I, "The Foundation Principles of Our History," may be studied entirely from this volume. In this section it should be made plain that the controversy between right and wrong is still carried on through individuals, nations, and churches, each hindering or helping forward the work of God in the earth. God makes the wrath of men, nations, and churches to praise Him; and that which cannot be made to praise him, He restrains. Ps. 76:10.

It may not be possible to find in any one text-book all the names of explorers listed in Section II. If thought best, the class study may be confined to those names found in the text used. It should be made plain that while the nations of Europe were absorbed in persecuting the people of God and exalting man above his Creator, God inspired a spirit of discovery and exploration in order to give relief to His persecuted church and prepare the way for founding the last nation of prophecy.

From the beginning of the colonial period to the present time,

we watch with ever-increasing interest the events having an influence either for or against protestant and republican principles. We see their growth and development until they become fundamental in the constitution and laws of state and nation; then the persistent effort to overthrow these principles and unite church and state. The class should make frequent reviews, sometimes just touching the mountain peaks of history, so as to be sure that each member carries with him a running outline of the providences of God in behalf of His people and His work.

It is not expected that all parts of the outline will be memorized by the pupils. Some parts are given more for reference than for class study; e. g., the names of some of the commanders in the Civil War. However, no topic which is fundamental to the principles of our work should be omitted.

We very much regret the absence of notes on Section VIII, "The National Period;" but for lack of time we are obliged to print the outlines without notes, or delay another full year. Should this present edition meet with approval, the necessary notes will be added in future editions or the outlines may develop into a full text. Helpful criticisms and suggestions will be thankfully received by the author. B. E. H.

Berrien Springs, Mich.

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